

NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL

Monterey, California



THESIS

**RECOMMENDATIONS OF RULES, REGULATIONS, AND
CODES FOR MANAGING THE FEMALE OFFICERS IN
THE TURKISH NAVY**

by

Yurdagul Colakoglu

September 1998

Thesis Co-Advisors:

Alice Crawford
Lee Edwards

Approved for public release; distribution is unlimited.

DTIC QUALITY INSPECTED 1

19980914 025

REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE

Form Approved
OMB No. 0704-0188

Public reporting burden for this collection of information is estimated to average 1 hour per response, including the time for reviewing instruction, searching existing data sources, gathering and maintaining the data needed, and completing and reviewing the collection of information. Send comments regarding this burden estimate or any other aspect of this collection of information, including suggestions for reducing this burden, to Washington headquarters Services, Directorate for Information Operations and Reports, 1215 Jefferson Davis Highway, Suite 1204, Arlington, VA 22202-4302, and to the Office of Management and Budget, Paperwork Reduction Project (0704-0188) Washington DC 20503.

1. AGENCY USE ONLY (Leave blank)

2. REPORT DATE
September 1998

3. REPORT TYPE AND DATES COVERED
Master's Thesis

4. TITLE AND SUBTITLE
RECOMMENDATIONS OF RULES, REGULATIONS, AND CODES FOR
MANAGING THE FEMALE OFFICERS IN THE TURKISH NAVY

5. FUNDING NUMBERS

6. AUTHOR(S)
Colakoglu, Yurdagul

7. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES)
Naval Postgraduate School
Monterey, CA 93943-5000

8. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION
REPORT NUMBER

9. SPONSORING / MONITORING AGENCY NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES)

10. SPONSORING / MONITORING
AGENCY REPORT NUMBER

11. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES

The views expressed in this thesis are those of the author and do not reflect the official policy or position of the Department of Defense or the U.S. Government.

12a. DISTRIBUTION / AVAILABILITY STATEMENT
Approved for public release; distribution is unlimited.

12b. DISTRIBUTION CODE

13. ABSTRACT (maximum 200 words)

The Turkish Navy commissioned its first female graduates from the Naval Academy in 1957, but these officers were not utilized in combat roles onboard ships. In 1960, the Navy ceased commissioning women altogether. Political and social pressure in the 1980s caused the Navy, once again, to open its doors to women in educational, engineering, and medical roles. In 1992, the Naval Academy updated its rules and regulations and allowed women to enter with the goal of fulfilling combat roles. As a result of this process, the Turkish Navy commissioned its first combatant female officers in the summer of 1996. This created a need for new rules, regulations, and codes for managing these combatant female officers. Research using the United States system as a likely source for managing issues related to combatant female officers and the description of social, traditional, and cultural differences between American and Turkish Nations in historical perspective are the focus of this thesis.

14. SUBJECT TERMS
Combatant, Fraternization, Sexual Harassment, Family Care, Equal Opportunity, Abortion

15. NUMBER OF PAGES
147

16. PRICE CODE

17. SECURITY
CLASSIFICATION OF REPORT
Unclassified

18. SECURITY
CLASSIFICATION OF THIS
PAGE
Unclassified

19. SECURITY
CLASSIFICATION OF
ABSTRACT
Unclassified

20. LIMITATION OF
ABSTRACT
UL

Approved for public release; distribution is unlimited

**RECOMMENDATIONS OF RULES, REGULATIONS, AND CODES FOR
MANAGING THE FEMALE OFFICERS IN THE TURKISH NAVY**

Yurdagul Colakoglu
Lieutenant, Turkish Navy
B.S., Turkish Naval Academy, Istanbul, 1984

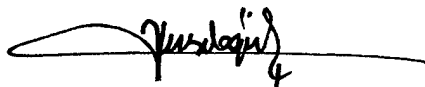
submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN MANAGEMENT

from the

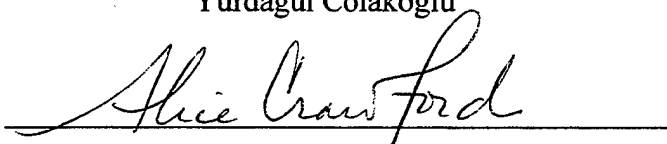
**NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL
September 1998**

Author: _____

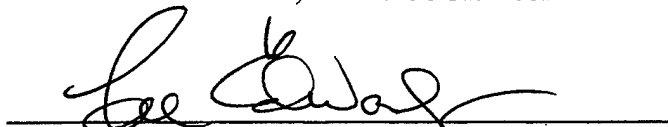


Yurdagul Colakoglu

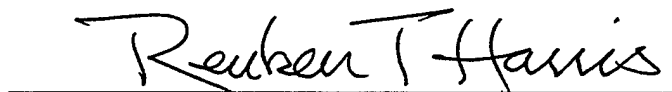
Approved by: _____



Alice Crawford, Thesis Co-Advisor



Lee Edwards, Thesis Co-Advisor



Reuben T. Harris, Chairman
Department of Systems Management

ABSTRACT

The Turkish Navy commissioned its first female graduates from the Naval Academy in 1957, but these officers were not utilized in combat roles onboard ships. In 1960, the Navy ceased commissioning women altogether. Political and social pressure in the 1980s caused the Navy, once again, to open its doors to women in educational, engineering, and medical roles. In 1992, the Naval Academy updated its rules and regulations and allowed women to enter with the goal of fulfilling combat roles. As a result of this process, the Turkish Navy commissioned its first combatant female officers in the summer of 1996. This created a need for new rules, regulations, and codes for managing these combatant female officers. Research using the United States system as a likely source for managing issues related to combatant female officers and the description of social, traditional, and cultural differences between American and Turkish Nations in historical perspective are the focus of this thesis.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

I. INTRODUCTION	1
A. PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH	1
B. METHODOLOGY	1
C. BENEFIT OF THE STUDY	3
D. ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS	3
II. BACKGROUND	5
A. ROLE AND STATUS OF THE TURKISH ARMED FORCES IN THE SOCIETY	5
B. DESCRIPTION OF THE TURKISH NAVY	11
1. Structure and Hierarchy of the Turkish Navy	11
2. The History of Female Officers in the Turkish Navy	14
C. THE EFFECT OF TURKISH CULTURAL, SOCIAL, AND RELIGIOUS VALUES ON WOMEN'S ISSUES: AN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE	16
1. The Turkish Family in History	16
2. Dynamic Classification of Women in Turkish Society	19
3. The Evolution of the Effects of Cultural, Social, and Religious Values on Women's Issues	25
4. The Evolution of Women's Rights in Turkish History	31
III. UNITED STATES ARMED FORCES POLICIES FOR MANAGING WOMEN IN THE MILITARY AND DISCUSSION OF POLICIES FOR THE TURKISH NAVY	45

A. PHYSIOLOGICAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEN AND	
WOMEN	45
1. Body Composition	45
2. Muscular Strength.....	45
3. Cardiorespiratory Capacity	47
4. Muscular Demanding Task Performance.....	48
5. Injury.....	52
6. Environmental Stress	52
7. Cognitive Factors.....	54
8. Occupational Standards	55
B. UNITED STATES ARMED FORCES POLICIES FOR MANAGING	
WOMEN IN THE MILITARY	59
1. Family Care Policy	59
2. Equal Opportunity Policy	63
3. Assignment of Women Members in the Department of Navy	68
4. Department of Navy Policy on Pregnancy.....	71
5. Policy on Management of Pregnant Servicewomen	75
6. Navy Abortion Policy	90
7. Navy Fraternization Policy	92
8. Department of Navy (DoN) Policy on Sexual Harassment	96
C. DISCUSSION OF POLICIES FOR THE TURKISH NAVY.....	104
1. Family Care Policy	104
2. Equal Opportunity Policy	106

3. Assignment of Women Members in the Department of Navy	107
4. Department of Navy Policy on Pregnancy.....	109
5. Policy on Management of Pregnant Servicewomen	110
6. Navy Abortion Policy	112
7. Navy Fraternization Policy	113
8. Department of Navy (DoN) Policy on Sexual Harassment	114
IV. RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION	117
A. RECOMMENDATIONS.....	117
1. Family Care Policy	117
2. Equal Opportunity Policy	118
3. Assignment of Women Members in the Department of Navy	120
4. Department of Navy Policy on Pregnancy and Policy on Management of Pregnant Servicewomen	121
5. Navy Abortion Policy	123
6. Navy Fraternization Policy	124
7. Department of Navy Policy on Sexual Harassment.....	124
B. CONCLUSION.....	125
LIST OF REFERENCES.....	127
INITIAL DISTRIBUTION LIST	133

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I thank my wife, Ozlem, for providing endless support and love, and for making this a “honeymoon tour” despite all the hard work; my son, Saruca, who was also a student in La Mesa Elementary School, for providing me with an understanding of my long study hours during his playtime; My mother, Ulker, for teaching me the importance of details in the life and for her endless love; My father, Suleyman, for teaching me patriotism and generosity; My mother in love, Gunseli, for providing me her infinite support; Professors Crawford and Edwards, for giving me their time, guidance, encouragement, and best of all, their friendship. Special thanks goes out to the first female officers of the Turkish Navy who assisted in providing me with critical information, experience, and guidance, including: Capt.(ret.) Nihal Gokcakin, Capt.(ret.) Ilgi Oztuncer, Lcdr.(ret.) Saime Gonul, Lcdr.(ret.) Kudret Tuzuner, Lcdr.(ret.) Seval, Erdok, Lcdr.(ret.) Gunsul Suer.

I. INTRODUCTION

A. PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

The Turkish Navy had its first female combatant graduates from the Naval Academy in 1957, achieving up to the rank of Captain in 1990s. However, they were not utilized in combat roles onboard ships. In the late 1960s, the Turkish Navy ceased commissioning female officers. However, in the 1980s, due to the pressure of social needs and from the political arena, as a first step, the Turkish Navy once again opened the doors to females as non-combatant officers. The Turkish Navy has utilized these women in educational, engineering, and the medical fields.

The next step for the Turkish Navy and women was in 1992 when the Turkish Naval Academy updated its rules and regulations and allowed women, once again, to attend the Academy with the goal of filling combatant roles. This step by the Turkish Navy created the first female graduates in the summer of 1996. This step also led to a requirement for new rules, regulations, and codes for managing combatant female officers.

This research examines policy and processes developed in the United States to manage the integration of women into combat roles. Information relevant to the Turkish Navy is extracted in order to make recommendations to assist this significant transition.

B. METHODOLOGY

The thesis examines and reviews various studies, codes, rules, and regulations and interviews first-generation female officers of the Turkish Navy to gain an insight into:

- The role and status of the Turkish Armed Forces in the society
- The structure and hierarchy of the Turkish Navy
- The history of female officers in the Turkish Armed Forces and in the Turkish Navy
- The Turkish family in history
- The changing classification and status of Turkish women in the society
- The evolution of cultural, social, traditional, and religious values on women's issues
- The evolution of women's rights in Turkey
- The physical and psychological differences between men and women and the effects of these differences on management
- The policies for managing the female officers in the United States Armed Forces.

This study produces recommendations and conclusions for managing Turkish combatant female officers based on answers to the following research questions:

The primary research question is:

Based on the United State's experience, and acknowledging cultural differences between the United States and Turkey, what rules, regulations, and codes could the Turkish navy adopt to manage the integration of women into combat roles?

The subsidiary research questions are:

1. How should the Turkish Navy establish rules, regulations, and codes that do not apply in light of the cultural differences of both nations? What policies and rules should be created?

2. Is there an area related to the rules, regulations, and codes that is not applicable for the United States Armed Forces, but should be adopted for the Turkish Navy regarding its female officers?

C. BENEFIT OF THE STUDY

Conclusions of this thesis may guide policy makers to update, rationalize, and utilize the rules, regulations, and codes for managing combatant female officers in the Turkish Navy. Recommendations of this thesis will illuminate areas for further research and guide the policy makers and lawmakers in these areas.

The potential benefit of updated, unbiased, and rational rules, regulations, and codes for managing combatant female officers in the Turkish Navy will be observed in higher retention rates, higher productivity, and perhaps higher potential for creativity. Experiences gained from US will help Turkey solve some problems related to female officer's issues before they emerge. Rules, regulations, and codes capturing current and potential problems of female officers will increase the loyalty, power, respect, and morale of combatant female officers in the Turkish Navy.

D. ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

Following this introductory chapter, the study is organized into four chapters. Chapter II provides background information on the role and status of the Turkish Armed

Forces in the society, the Turkish Navy and Turkish women. Chapter III reviews physical and psychological differences between female and male officers and the policies used for the management of female officers in the United States Armed Forces. The chapter also defines applicable policies for the Turkish Navy. Chapter IV summarizes the study and presents conclusions and recommendations.

II. BACKGROUND

This chapter introduces the Turkish Armed Forces, the Turkish Navy, and the Turkish women's issues in a historical perspective. The role and status of the Turkish Armed Forces in society is reviewed historically. This review is utilized to foresee the potential problems and solutions of the combatant female officers in the Turkish Navy. Turkish society and the Turkish family in history, the social status and classification of women, the evolution of cultural, social, traditional and religious values of women's issues, and finally, development of women's rights in the Turkish history are explored.

A. ROLE AND STATUS OF THE TURKISH ARMED FORCES IN THE SOCIETY

Armed Forces in the Turkish society have for centuries been one of the most important institutions of the nation. Achievements, developments, successes, and victories of the Armed Forces have contributed to the development of the nation. The handicaps of the Armed Forces, in terms of political efforts to keep them in second priority, have historically been accepted as the major reason for defeats of the nation. The Turkish Armed Forces is conceived as a safety valve of the nation that did not work at the last two centuries of Ottoman Empire.

The unbeatable, innovative, and politically supported army achieved the successes and victories of Ottoman Empire beginning in the thirteenth century and lasting six centuries. This same army was also the main reason for the Empire's collapse because of its static, anti-reformist, victory-blinded commanders and leaders. Efforts from 1826 onwards to establish reforms for the Ottoman Empire could not save the empire [Ref. 3,

p. 41] and the modern Turkish nation state was born out of the bloody process of the slow and painful disintegration of the Ottoman Empire [Ref. 4, p. 2]. The political and social conditions of the Turkish nation will describe the status and handicaps of the Armed Forces after World War I.

At the end of World War I and the defeat of both Germany and the Ottoman Empire, the Treaty of Sevres, signed on 10 August 1920, left the Ottoman Empire as an inferior state in northern Asia Minor with Istanbul as its capital [Ref. 3, p. 153]. The armistice, concluded on 31 October 1918 at Mudros, was signed between the English and the Ottoman delegations. The 25 articles contained provisions such as the military occupation of the straits, control by the Entente of all railway and telegraph lines, demobilization and disarmament of the Ottoman troops (except for small contingents needed to keep law and order), surrender by all Ottoman troops in the Arab provinces, and freeing of all Entente prisoners of war in Ottoman hands. All German and Austrian military personnel had to leave the country within two months. The most dangerous clause from the Ottoman point of view was Article Seven, which stipulated that Entente had the right to occupy any place in the Ottoman Empire if it considered its security to be under threat. Article 24 gave the Entente the right to intervene militarily in the "Armenian" provinces if law and order should break down there. These articles could (and did) allow the Entente to use force more or less as it pleased [Ref. 4, p. 138]. Describing the Turkish population at the end of World War I enlightens the difficulties that the Armed Forces had to recruit the army.

Because of the agricultural nature of the Ottoman Empire economy, the peasants had been traditionally exploited and abused by the notables in the countryside, but they

held the state responsible for their oppression. After all, the notables exploited the peasants only with the aid of the state, which provided the means of coercion, the gendarmerie, and the courts. [Ref. 2, p. 75] Reforms had always been needed to create better social and economic conditions in the countryside; however, the extra burden of every reform of new taxes and more government service created disloyalty to the government, but not to the Ottoman dynasty. As a result of this spoilage and discrimination in the society, the founders of the Turkish Republic, the Kemalists, Believers of Kemalism ideology, (the ideology of Turkish nation based on its former leader Mustafa Kemal Atatürk's ideas) had inherited a society in which the notion of a Turkish identity was almost totally non-existent [Ref. 2, p. 77]. Although there had been some spoilage in the Ottoman Armed Forces, the core of the Armed Forces had been accepted as a unique hope to save the country and the dynasty. Distrust to the government may have been thought as the greatest support for recruiting people into the army to fight against the Entente invasion. However, the spoiled dynasty with the religious "caliph" role was the greatest barrier to recruiting an army by simply accepting the Entente invasion to keep the throne.

The religious "*caliph*" and traditional "*idol*" role of the Ottoman emperor was one of the hardest institutions of the Ottoman Empire to change at the birth of the Turkish Republic. Given the very limited support and enthusiasm that the Kemalists found for the national movement in the upper level of the Turkish society, the Kemalists considered turning elsewhere: to the peasants and the workers [Ref. 2, p. 73]. The Kemalists, finding the peasantry unreceptive to their call, because of anti-propaganda of the Ottoman dynasty, were compelled to reach the peasants through the agency of their traditional

leaders, the local notables, the men of religion, and the sheiks [Ref. 2, p. 76]. Some of the ottoman elite began to understand the collapse of the Ottoman Empire and supported nationalist movement.

The limited number of supporters from the elite of the Ottoman society increased with the increasing number of invasions of the Entente. The external threat directed toward disbanding national unity and independence forged strong bonds of solidarity between men and women at all strata [Ref. 1, p. 14]. Turkish women for the first time in history had taken their part to organize the national movement against invasions. Also, social associations began to organize propaganda against invasions and helped in recruiting [Ref. 1, p. 15]. The Turkish nation began to conceive the inevitable role of the Turkish women in every aspect of the society.

The role of the Turkish women during the Independence War between 1919 and 1923 created new horizons for the Turkish Armed Forces regarding the Turkish women. Halide Edip, a well-known writer and educational leader, together with her husband, fled from the Ottoman capital, Istanbul, and joined the National Armed Forces of Mustafa Kemal (the former leader of the Turkish Republic) and soon became the first woman sergeant [Ref. 1, p. 15]. A student representative and young speaker of open-air meetings, Munevver Saime, too, had to flee from Istanbul to Anatolia, where she joined the Nationalist Army. She actively participated in the War of Independence and was known to many as "Soldier Saime." Wounded, she was later awarded the highest distinction, the Medal of Independence [Ref. 1, p. 16]. The heroic deeds of Turkish women were not only recorded by historians, but also passed into the records of the new Turkish Parliament. On January 30, 1921, at its 140th session, the representative of Bursa, Emin

Bey, requested the awarding of the Medal of Independence to Nezahat, the daughter of Halit Bey, for her heroic deeds during the battle of Gordes and Inonu. She was called by a number of speakers "the Turkish Jeanne d'Arc." This little girl, who started her career as an eight-year-old on the battlefield and was twelve at the time of this debate, was proposed to be honored with a promotion to general [Ref. 1, p. 17]. Several examples of heroic deeds of Turkish men and women in that very short period against the anti-propaganda of the dynasty are shown by the success of individual commanders such as Mustafa Kemal and Fevzi Cakmak, and have added value to the Armed Forces in the eyes of countrymen.

The Turkish Armed Forces, as an inevitable part of the Turkish society, had and will always make a vital contribution to the Turkish Republic. Traditionally, the Turkish society honors its heroes and their contributions to the nation. The norms of "*ghazi* and *martyr*" fully describe the Armed Forces for eleven centuries in the Turkish society. The warriors of the nation still go into the battle shouting: "*If I return I'll be a ghazi, if I die a martyr*" [Ref. 2, p. 16]. As a result of these norms, during the Independence War between 1919 and 1923, some 2.5 million Anatolian Muslims lost their lives, as well as between 600,000 and 800,000 Armenians and up to 300,000 Greeks. All in all, the population of Anatolia declined 20 percent through mortality, a percentage 20 times as high as that of France, which had been the hardest-hit country among the European combatants in World War I. [Ref. 3, p. 171]

The role that the soldier played in the national struggle and the creation of the new state gives him an honored place in Kemalist society [Ref. 2, p. 121]. The view of a military career, that had lost its glamour and was no longer seen as the way to upward

mobility and prestige at the last period of the Ottoman Empire, was no longer true especially in the proclamation of republic [Ref. 2, p. 122]. In fact, Turkish society conceived the military leaders of the struggle as the political leaders of the new state. Their sophisticated education level and vision was a resource for the nation. The military leaders were given the choice of either a political or a military career to keep the Armed Forces out of politics. In his Great Speech of October 1927, Mustafa Kemal entrusted the duty of preserving and defending national independence and the Turkish Republic to the Turkish youth and not the army [Ref. 2, p. 122]. The Turkish youth were given a new task of education to perform by using the Armed Forces as a social tool.

Following the Independence War, the new struggle of the state was a campaign against illiteracy. Turkish youth, seized as the target group for the future of the nation, were given modern education opportunities during both their civilian lives and military service, and were used to teach the rest of the nation. Mustafa Kemal and his friends directed all their attention to being an example for the reforms for the nation instead of forcing reform on the nation. He and his friends traveled the country to take their reforms to the peasants. His adoption of daughters and efforts to educate them in many different areas provided equal opportunities for the female youth along with the males. Symbolically, the Armed Forces, for the first time in the history, opened its doors to Kemalist women, trained them as pilots, and used them in air bombing operations against Kurdish rebels in the rebellion of 1937 [Ref. 2, p. 87]. The nation utilized the Armed Forces to teach the illiterate Turkish youth during their draft service and supported educational programs of the new state. The new role and successes of the Armed Forces in the educational arena provided it with a new nation-wide image: the school of life.

Today, the Turkish Armed Forces is the constitutional guarantee of the secular democracy and represents the norms of justice, honor, morale, creativity, and civilization for the Turkish society.

B. DESCRIPTION OF THE TURKISH NAVY

1. Structure and Hierarchy of the Turkish Navy

The Turkish Navy is composed of three different rank classifications: officers (including Admirals), Petty Officers (including Chiefs, Senior and Master Chiefs), and ratings (including Expert Sergeants and Expert Corporals). The highest classification, the officers, in the Turkish Navy is composed of three groups: junior officers between Ensign (O-1) and Lieutenant (O-3), senior officers between Lieutenant Commander (O-4) and Captain (O-6), and Admirals between Commodore or Rear Admiral Lower Half (O-7) and Admiral (O11).

The second classification, the Petty Officers, is ranked in two different groups: Petty Officers between Petty Officer Fourth Class (E-3) and Petty Officer First Class (E-6), and chiefs between Chief Petty Officer (E-7) and Master Chief Petty Officer (E-9).

The last classification, the ratings, is composed of two different categories: the Expert Sergeants and Corporals--whose expertise is hired for limited time at the end of their draft service--and draftees. Draftees are the core of this last classification. The Expert Sergeants and Corporals are senior to the draftee Sergeants, Corporals, and regular draftees. The goals of the Expert Sergeant and Corporal Program in the Turkish Armed forces are to utilize draftee expertise, to create work opportunities for the draftees at the

end of their service, and to create a source of Petty Officers after certain qualification exams.

All fleet officers except medical are from the Naval Academy. The Turkish Marine officers are educated in the Turkish Army Academy in infantry and military engineering occupational skills (MOS) by the Navy's expense. The regulations, rules, and codes do not allow civilian-source officers to work on board ship (all medical officers are from the Armed Forces Medical School). In other words, officers other than Naval Academy graduates are not given combat roles, with the exception of male medical officers.

Officers from the Naval Academy can attend the Naval War College for two years to become a Staff Officer. If they succeed in the eligibility exam, they are eligible to attend the Naval War College between their seventh and twelfth years of service. Naval War College graduates eventually attend the Armed Forces War College somewhere in their careers. Staff Officers, War College graduates, are given more opportunities than the Naval Academy graduates in their careers. Naval Postgraduate School and other postgraduate school graduates have the opportunity of becoming either a Staff Officer or a Technical Officer in their careers. Technical Officers are utilized in their specialty; however, Staff Officers are utilized in either combat or non-combat assignments during their career. Years of service and aggregated annual personal records are the main criteria in promotion of an officer.

The main source of Petty Officer nominees in the Turkish Navy is a military school called "Naval Petty Officer High School." The sources for the rest of the Petty Officer nominees are civilian high schools and the Expert Sergeant and Corporal

Program. The civilian high school graduates are screened via an annual nation-wide university eligibility exam, followed by military-eligibility-science, physical fitness, and medical exams. Petty Officer nominees from the Expert Sergeant and Corporal Program are screened via their aggregated military records and exam results. The nominees from all sources attend Military Occupational Skill schools for one year. The survivors of Military Occupational Skill schools are graduated as Petty Officers.

Petty Officers are given the choice of becoming an officer between their ninth and twelfth years of service, based on their aggregated military personal records and examination results. However, they cannot be promoted higher than Lieutenant unless they graduated from a college. And, even though they may have graduated from a college, their opportunities are limited in their career patterns.

Both officers and Petty Officers (including Chiefs) are long-term investments for the Turkish Navy (both have fifteen years of obligatory service). Expert Sergeants and Corporals are contracted for shorter terms such as three-year periods.

The third and lowest rank (except the Expert Sergeants and Corporals) in the Navy are called "ratings." They are drafted for each of the services. Government agencies draft male youth at age eighteen years. They are drafted for one-and-half years of service unless they continue their education. The pre-military occupations and skills of draftees are considered for their following military occupational specialty. The draftees of college graduates are given the choice to be an officer with a one-and-a half-year commitment or a "rating" with an eight-month commitment. The ratings of the Turkish Navy have an education range from five years of primary school to doctorate degrees in science; however, the average education for the draftees is eight years of school.

Draftees, at the end of their service, are given the choice of being Expert Sergeants or Corporals based on their pre-military education level (High School Graduates Sergeant, Secondary School Graduates Corporal), aggregated military personal records, and the needs of the Navy.

2. The History of Female Officers in the Turkish Navy

The Turkish Navy had its first female combat graduates from its Naval Academy in 1957. Turkish women were allowed to attend the Naval Academy between 1955 and 1960, and the Navy had eight female officers during that period. Although these women were trained for combat and wished to work on board, they were not utilized in combat roles onboard ship. Even though they were entitled to the same opportunities as their male counterparts while at the Naval Academy, they were forced to change their naval careers, MOS, from Unrestricted Line (URL) to Restricted Line (RL) following graduation. Changing from URL to RL practically ended these officers' naval careers because RL officers were not allowed to attend Naval War College, which is still very important step toward promotion to Admiral. [Ref. 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]

Being forced to change her MOS led Ensign Nihal Gokcakin, who graduated from the Naval Academy in first degree in 1962, to continue her career in a technical field. She applied to the Navy to continue her education in a civilian university in order to have the potential of promotion to Admiral in her technical field. Following approval, she attended Yildiz University and earned her Master's degree in electrical engineering in 1966. The Navy rewarded her by giving her five years of promotion based on her academic achievement; however, she and other female officers were not supported during their

naval life, even for their female physical needs. Finally, Gokcakin, who was never promoted to Admiral, retired in 1981 with the rank of Captain. [Ref. 6]

Unequal opportunities in the Navy and the traditional maternal role of women in Turkish society led most of female officers to retire at the earliest chance. Turkish Republic Public Law 1992 passed on July 3, 1975 provided opportunities for female civil servants, including those in the military, to retire after 20 years of active service [Ref. 1 p. 55]. Most of the female officers, (Kudret Tuzuner, Seval Erdok, Gunsul Suer, and Saime Gonul), used this opportunity and retired at the rank of Lieutenant Commander in the late 1970s and early 1980s. [Ref. 7, 8, 9, 10]

Finally, in 1960, the Turkish Navy ceased commissioning female midshipmen. By retirement, Ilgi Oztuncer, Nihal Gokcakin and Serpil Erdemli had become Captains, the highest rank attained by any female officer at that time [Ref. 5, 6]. However, in the 1980s, social and political pressures led the Turkish Navy to once again open its doors to females as non-combatant officers. Even though they were not utilized by the fleet, they participated in education, engineering, and medicine.

The second step for women occurred in 1992, when the Turkish Naval Academy updated its rules and regulations based on educational needs and once again allowed women to attend train for combat roles at the Academy. With the first class of combat-trained women graduating in the summer of 1996, the Turkish Navy found that it needed to create rules, regulations, and codes for managing combatant female officers in the fleet.

C. THE EFFECT OF TURKISH CULTURAL, SOCIAL, AND RELIGIOUS VALUES ON WOMEN'S ISSUES: AN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

1. The Turkish Family in History

For 600 hundred years, the Ottoman Emperors held the title of "Caliph," which gave them free reign to govern the society with tyranny and repression, especially toward women. As the result of the emperors' religious role, the traditional norms of the Moslem family, in which strict male dominance was the norm and the females were valued mainly for their sexual roles, inevitably became the norm for the Ottoman family, as well.

Early Chinese writings are the main source of information about the pre-historic Turkish family. Family was the most important institution in pre-Islamic Turkish society. The patriarchal family, with the father as the ultimate authority, was the norm. Although women were under the guardianship of father or husband--with the exception of those taking military and official positions--they assumed important roles. In the ruling class, a woman occupied an almost identical position to her spouse's. Because of wars, women enjoyed a certain freedom in managing the affairs of the family. They were neither in harems nor obliged to cover themselves before men. The only condition required for marriage was consent of the guardians and the couple; the state was not involved in the marriage contract. [Ref. 1, p. 182]

During the tenth and eleventh centuries, Turks all over Central Asia and the Middle and Near East were gradually, but not forcibly, converted to Islam. By this time, Islamic Law had undergone more than four hundred years of development--except for the norms governing marriage, divorce and inheritance--and the Ottoman Turks inherited a

Holy Law that admitted no further creative development. Thus, while Islamic Law experienced further refinements in some areas, the Sunni norms governing marriage and divorce (and inheritance) remained set and static. Ottomans adopted Islamic law so thoroughly that the old Turkish legal culture lost its distinct identity, resulting in a lessened status for Turkish women in both society and family. [Ref. 1, p. 182-183]

In the nineteenth century, with the advent of the Tanzimat edict in 1839, imitative self-defense reforms, strongly influenced by the Westernizers, were adopted. In 1871, a commission was established to rewrite the Holy Law of obligations and contracts using relevant western codes as a guide, but its product, the "Mecelle," did not touch the core of the Sacred Law, the Law of the Family. Nevertheless, the Ottomans developed institutions by which they could monitor, if not regulate, the institution of marriage. The "imam" was required to notify state authorities of all marriages and, thus, the imam's role became that of an official marriage registrar. [Ref. 1, p. 183]

The first Ottoman constitution of 1876 declared that "the Islamic Caliphate (the succession to the Prophet) is vested in the Ottoman Sultanate" (article 3), and as a the Caliph, "the Sultan is the protector of the religion of Islam" (article 4). [Ref. 4, p. 77]

In 1917, a special code for marriage and divorce was drafted. However, this code, adopted by the last Ottoman parliament and later repealed in 1919 under pressure from Islamic reactionaries, fell far short of bringing progressive rights. It approved of marriages at the age of nine for girls and ten for boys, as well as polygamy. The only progressive aspect of this code was the prohibition of "cradle marriages" and the acceptance of certain conditions for the oath of repudiation--the right of one-sided divorce--recognized only by the husband. [Ref. 1, p. 183]

Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, determined to fight against the conservative forces gathered around the Ministry of the Sharia, succeeded in passing legislation that changed the ideological scope of public life. On March 3, 1924 he secured the right to an education for both sexes by abolishing the Caliphate and passing a Law for the Unification of Instruction. Determined not to wait for long-term evolutionary processes, the Turkish Parliament adopted a slightly modified version of the Swiss Civil Code (found by the commission to be the most suitable to the principle of secularism) on October 4, 1926. This code made polygamy illegal and gave equal rights to women in the family. For Atatürk and his supporters, the granting of equality before law for men and women was the realization of a promise given long before, a symbol to the world that the new Turkey was adamant about "reaching a level of contemporary civilization." [Ref. 1, p. 183]

Although Turkey's choice to adopt a Western legal code provided a favorable climate for change in the status of women, it assumed real importance only where socioeconomic structural changes totally altered the outlook of both sexes. Here, the Code served as an instrument for the recognition of rights. In areas with a predominantly feudal character, however, the Code has had little impact. Thus, legal dualism still exists to some degree. With the rapidly changing social structure of Turkish society, both the press and women's associations have called for radical changes in the Turkish Civil Code to provide more-equal rights. [Ref. 1, p. 184]

In 1975, the Women's Year, twenty-seven women's associations began making annual demands on the Turkish Parliament. The Parliament, in legislative year 1985-

1986, finally passed a very comprehensive bill to modify various sections of the Turkish Civil Code. [Ref. 1, p. 185]

2. Dynamic Classification of Women in Turkish Society

Turkey's unique path of development in the twentieth century placed the country in the middle of Christian and Islamic world clashes. Both the Islamic and the Christian world considered Turkey's social and economic development a threat. Even though Turkish society is far ahead of the Islamic world's, it is still behind the Christian world's. The Islamic world accuses Turkey of spoiling Moslem tradition, and, at the same time, the Christian world accuses Turkey of imitating its social values instead of transplanting them. Turkey's fast social development in the twentieth century inevitably created dynamic-social-hierarchical classes for Turkish women.

a. *Nomadic Women*

A small percentage of Turkey's women belong to isolated, nonintegrated nomadic tribes. At present, the trend is toward a spatial settlement of almost all nomadic tribes in Anatolia, but this process will require some time to accomplish. Within such nomadic or half-sedentarized tribes, women play a decisive role in dairy production, weaving, etc., but outside their procreative role, their power in decision-making is negligible. Males dominate all activities related to the public sphere, while women's authority remains confined to interfamily affairs. Nomadic women adhere totally to the rigid rules of the tribe; their degree of individuality depends on their innate capacity to resist an overall embracing type of control. [Ref. 1, p. 161]

b. *Traditional, Rural Women*

As universally observed, the traditional lifestyle of peasant culture, closely linked to a subsistence economy, also determines the female's status within that culture. This status remains constant, namely childbearing and growing authority with advancing age. Their labor goes largely unrecognized; males control specialized areas and public dealings. However, the impact of technological innovations and the widening of the communications network are also touching traditional villages. Furthermore, traditional peasant women feel integrated through various instruments and institutions-- mainly the mass media and political elections. The high percentage of electoral vote-casting among village women indicates that, even where political choices are heavily under the directives of the head of the family, women are conscious of their role as citizens. [Ref. 1, p. 161]

c. *Changing Rural Women*

In this group, we find women whose setting is changing, often dramatically. Internal and external migration, farm mechanization, and the village's entrance into a cash crop economy substantially alter the function of fathers and mothers and redefine the status of women. The strong negative relationship between socioeconomic development and women's labor force participation is especially seen in this group. Under certain conditions, development may negatively affect women's educational level; wherever seasonal migration and alternative job opportunities, such as factory work for women, are present, we see a greater concentration of women in small,

labor-intensive agricultural production. Such intensive work hinders women's schooling.
[Ref. 1, p. 161]

d. "Gecekonu" (Squatter Housing) Women

Previous research projects by Erder (1981) indicate that in the year 2000, Turkey's female population will be 35.6 million; 26.7 million women--Turkey's total rural population today--will live in cities, mainly as a result of fast depeasantization. Among these new urbanites, the most dynamic are represented by the Turkish "gecekonu" women. The women of the squatter housing districts are part of the peripheral labor force, which is based on kinship ties and networks. Like her spouse, the "gecekonu" woman finds it hard, if not impossible, to find employment in the formal, organized urban sectors. These women share the general characteristics of this labor force in that they are uneducated, untrained, unskilled, and inexperienced. Turkish gecekonu women also solicit to a very small percentage jobs as domestic help in private homes. In early 1950s, the only opportunity for illiterate, unskilled women was work as maids; later, they entered unspecialized branches of the urban service sectors. Thus, the present employment pattern of women in the squatter areas reflects a general withdrawal from the urban labor market and a tendency to enter unorganized, low-paying, unspecialized jobs, while refraining from performing domestic jobs. [Ref. 1, p. 161-162]

e. Urban Female Wage Earners

Although 81 percent of economically active urban women are not gainfully employed, the number of female wage earners is steadily increasing. Certain

regions, such as the Marmara and the Aegean, as well as the three provinces with metropolitan cities, show the most rapid growth. The heaviest concentration of women are in light manufacturing industry, i.e., tobacco, textiles, apparel, food, beverages, packing, etc. Actually, the most drastic swelling of Turkey's female labor class has taken place outside the national boundaries. The opening up of Western Europe's labor market after World War II created new job opportunities for men and women. The large figures of Turkish immigrant workers in Western Europe explain why the most significant changes in Turkey's social structure have occurred because of the massive toll of external migration parallel to the very fast rate of urbanization. Both factors are closely related to economic under-development and its corollaries, unemployment and under-employment. [Ref. 1, p. 162-163]

f. Small-town Women

This group embraces predominantly wives of small entrepreneurs or low-ranking civil servants. Small-town women are the least visible, in the sense that they are the most homebound and secluded, the most restricted in movement, and the least prominent in employment. Although the attitudes toward segregation and mixing with male visitors are more relaxed, women in small towns, because of the greater emphasis on public sphere and the absolute disappearance of female labor, are rather confined to their residential neighborhoods. The Bogazliyan study on left-behind family members of migrants indicated that shopping, which traditionally has been a man's job, represents a delicate problem to solve. While 51 percent of migrants' wives were permitted to do the shopping, including going to the weekly marketplace, the remaining 40.6 percent

delegated this task to male relatives or their own children. Under these conditions, female leisure, which is almost nonexistent in rural areas, has resulted in larger social networks, which have facilitated the formation of the "kabul gun." This institution (one could call it an "acceptance day") consists of a visiting pattern by which women receive guests on a regular, rotational basis. A wife's attendance at "kabul guns" reflects her husband's position in the community. Generally, the wives of local or non-local salaried employees, "agas" (landlords), and wealthy merchants give and attend "kabul guns." For the remaining part of small-town women, gatherings of a religious nature, such as recitations of the "mevlut" prayer, offer an opportunity for social interaction. The "mevlut" is attended by women of all ages. Finally, one should not overlook the "drop-in" form of visits, which constantly take place in immediate neighborhoods. [Ref. 1, p. 163-164]

g. Professional Middle-and Upper-Middle-Class Women

In Turkey, it seems that the public sector has attracted most of the educated professional women. Considering that the first female employees in post offices were admitted only in 1914, after the entrance of the Ottoman Empire into World War I, the history of white-collar Turkish women is rather brief. Under the Ottoman rule, female civil servants were obliged to work in segregated rooms and could discard their veils only during working hours. Yet, the growth in numbers of female bureaucrats has been spectacular. Indeed, between 1938 and 1976, the number of female civil servants increased nineteen times, while the number of male civil servants rose only sixfold. Thus, one can state that a visible "bureaucratization" of qualified female manpower has taken place in Turkey. This increase also carries with it a rise in educational attainment. While

54 percent of all male civil servants are primary or secondary school graduates, 68.5 percent of women in government service are educated at the high school level or beyond. Nevertheless, these women have remained in "feminine occupations," such as secretarial work, nursing, and teaching. Next to civil service, banking seems to be the preferred occupation of women, so much so that one can talk about a "feminization" of the banking sector. Also, one in every five practicing lawyers and one in every six practicing doctors in Turkey is female. Women's entry into professions is a direct outcome of elite recruitment as, over the years, all educational echelons were generally open to the daughters of upper-class families. In highly prestigious professions, women from elite backgrounds are considered much more acceptable and less threatening than upwardly mobile men from humbler backgrounds, who are likely to be more competitive and achievement-oriented. As a group, upper-class housewives seem to have reaped some the biggest benefits of Ataturk's reforms; a considerable number of them have completed a university education, but have chosen to marry instead of taking up a career. They still define the successful in exclusively domestic terms such as "good mother and wife." This stratum attaches great importance to conspicuous consumption and displays a stylish Western dress, while still clinging to traditional values that center around a network of family members, neighbors and classmates. [Ref. 1, p. 164-165]

The dynamic nature of Turkish society and changing economic conditions force Turkish women to attain, as much as possible, a higher social class. Turkish women know that the more they are educated, the more they will have autonomy in society. The trend in Turkish society is to classify women according to their level of education.

3. The Evolution of the Effects of Cultural, Social, and Religious Values on Women's Issues

Western civilization aimed to break the Islamic conservative shackles, which Atatürk so fervently attempted to implant in Turkish society, as in the changes produced by the slow but constant evolution that began during Ottoman rule [Ref. 1, p. 27]. One of the most important effects of the Islam religion on society was in the educational arena. Because the religion demanded that the people use the Arabic alphabet and Arabic numerals, the Ottoman society remained far behind the Western societies. People could not even read their own literature because of illiteracy; they could not learn about and understand western civilizations. Openness to innovations and knowledge from other civilizations had been the main reason for the success of the Ottoman Empire. However, a lack of openness became the main reason for its collapse.

According to the 1927 census (the first census of the Turkish Republic), less than nine percent of the population was literate; the actual figure for literacy was probably even lower. Mustafa Kemal believed that literacy made one human, and, therefore, to teach the illiterate and make them human beings, so to speak, was a national duty [Ref. 2, p. 81].

In the ten years following the proclamation of the Turkish Republic, religious courts and schools were abolished and religious brotherhoods banned; international numerals and the Latin alphabet were adopted to replace the Arabic script; civil, commercial, and penal codes were imported from Switzerland, Germany, and Italy; an international (Christian) calendar was introduced, with Sunday as a day of rest; and specifically Eastern and religious forms of dress were banned, as were traditional titles.

National ideology inspired the elimination of as many Arabic and Persian words as possible from the Turkish language and the rewriting of history to stress the Turkish contribution to civilization. Although they appeared revolutionary at the time, most of these measures were the logical culmination of Ottoman reforms undertaken in the nineteenth century and under the Young Turks after 1908. The Ottoman reformers aimed at a Western-style centralized state; Ataturk actually established it. His reforms had the support of the majority of educated Turks, who had been trained in similar ideals. Kemalism (Turks call it Ataturkism) was quickly adopted as the ideology of military officers and public servants. [Ref. 4, p. 9]

The adoption of the Latin alphabet and the literacy drive that followed led to a dramatic increase in the level of literacy. The percentage of the population that could read and write rose from around eight percent in 1928 to over 20 percent in 1935, and to 30 percent at the end of the World War II [Ref. 2, p. 82]. The literacy rate rose dramatically—from 19 percent in 1935 to 77 percent in 1985, when 86 percent of all men and 68 percent of all women were classed as literate [Ref. 4, p. 68]. The current figure is around 85 percent.

Education was and still is the key to social advancement. Both presidents Turgut Ozal and Suleyman Demirel came from humble provincial backgrounds. Both were educated in free state schools and universities and then rose rapidly in public service (which they had to enter to repay their free education) before entering politics [Ref. 4, p. 68]. Professor Tansu Ciller, Turkey's first female prime minister and the daughter of a senior public servant (a principal governor), had parents who could afford to give her an American education in Istanbul and the United States. Even earlier, left-of-center leader

Bulent Ecevit received a good education (at Robert College, an American missionary foundation in Istanbul, which has now become Bosphorus University) because his father belonged to the first generation of nationalist politicians. [Ref. 4, p. 69]

Religious abuse of the society was an authoritarian governmental tool in the last period of the Ottoman Empire, resulting loss of national identity. Standards of right (sevap--a meritorious act) and wrong (gunah--sin) were widely used political terms defining the strength of the policies [Ref. 4, p. 72]. The Ottoman government issued the policies after the approval of religious authority. The illiterate part of society, the peasantry, who carried the weight of the agricultural economy, could not even argue against the policies because of their religious basis.

In 1927, shortly after the collapse of the Ottoman Empire, 76 percent of all Turks lived in villages, 24 percent in cities and towns [Ref. 4, p. 65]. There was almost no industry and, therefore, no working class worthy of the name. Industrial statistics for 1915 reveal that, within the borders of today's Turkey, there were only 182 industrial enterprises employing about 14,000 workers [Ref. 2, p. 73]. The results were a poor agricultural economy, poverty all around the country, and, most importantly, a peasantry that had lost its identity and lost their thrust to their governors.

It is worth emphasizing that in the late Ottoman Empire, the very term 'Turk' was a term of derision used for the unsophisticated and coarse peasant, tribesman, or small-town dweller. People, if they had a choice, preferred to be identified as 'Ottoman,' members of a stratum with its own culture and language (called Ottoman and not Turkish), which transcended the bounds of race and religion. Thus, anyone, whether Greek, Armenian, Jewish, Arab, Kurdish, Albanian, or Turkish, could become an

Ottoman as long as he or she possessed the proper cultural and linguistic attributes. It was Europeans, more at home with discourse on nationalism, who spoke of Turkey and Turks when they referred to events in the Ottoman Empire. A few Turks adopted this vocabulary and began to write in 'Turkish,' the language of the people, in contrast to the language of the educated elite. Even so, as late as 1897, there was shock when the nationalist poet Mehmed Emin Yurdakul wrote of newly-found nationalist pride in line:

"I am a Turk, my faith and my race are mighty." [Ref. 2, p. 78]

One feature of Turkish society that Atatürk left unchanged was the tradition of state paternalism, not to say authoritarianism. Although he declared that "the peasant is our master," the peasant did, and was conditioned to do, as he was told. [Ref. 4, p. 9-10]

While it lasted, both the theory and existence of the linguistic society owed much to the work of the Society for the Study of Turkish History, which had been founded slightly earlier, in 1931. At its first congress, held in Ankara in 1932, the "Turkish Historical Thesis" was propounded for the first time. This theory, which was emphatically supported by Mustafa Kemal, held that the Turks had originally lived in Central Asia, but had been forced by drought and hunger to migrate to other areas, such as China, Europe, and the Near East. In doing so, they had created the world's great civilizations. The theory aimed to give Turks a sense of pride in their past and in their national identity, separate from the immediate past, the Ottoman era. Declaring the Hittites and the Trojans Proto-Turks had the added advantage of proving that Anatolia had been a Turkish country since time immemorial, thus extending the roots of citizens of the republic in the soil they inhabited. It was one of the means by which the Kemalist

leadership tried to construct a new national identity and strong national cohesion. [Ref. 3, p. 199]

Every culture has its stereotypes of masculinity and femininity that pressure its members toward conformity. Muslim societies have generated a culture based explicitly upon sexual segregation. Muslim sexuality is based on territorial rights that strictly allocate space to each sex: religion and power to universe of men, and the domestic universe of sexuality and the family to women. [Ref. 1, p. 160]

Women in Ottoman society did not count for very much. Since they were not conscripted, the census takers did not take them seriously. They worked in what little industry there was and monopolized certain branches, such as the weaving of textiles and carpets and cigarette making. Such branches were classified as "women's work," and they were paid lower wages than men; a French report described female labor as being "cheaper than water" [Ref. 2, p. 84]. However, empirical data of recent years reveal that Turkish women seem to have adopted new attitudes and standards. Contrary to the prevailing idea that employment outside the home is the only vehicle for emancipation, the Turkish case clearly shows that a change in mentality does not automatically stem from participation in economic activities, but, rather, is linked to a different position within the family and/or within the given social stratum, as well as to the degree of financial power [Ref. 1, p. 166]. Today, society looks upon the Turkish working woman as an asexual breadwinner; respect for her economic autonomy and economic partnership overshadows her sexual characteristics.

In Turkey, as in all Islamic cultures, male honor is important; this concept demands the purity and chastity of all women closely related to a particular man.

Nevertheless, as sexuality becomes more articulated in the press and in literature, sexual mores are weakening. The legal reforms of the mid-1920s have produced astonishing results that go in two directions—traditionalism and modernism—depending on the respective structural changes that have affected Turkey's society. Although Turkey has repeatedly undertaken major efforts to break down the barriers between the sexes, certain patterns of behavior continue, but in different ways. For example, women of all ages travel alone on trains and buses, but they try not to sit too close to a man; territorial segregation persists, even if in a very modified way. [Ref. 1, p. 160]

The emancipation of women, proclaimed by edict as part of Ataturk's reforms, has gone a fair way. Yet, many women hold positions of authority and eminence in professions, the judiciary, private business, cultural affairs, and, of course, educational and health services. Used to the schoolmarm from primary school, Turks combine a macho culture with acceptance of women in authority. In the home, the mother and elder sister share authority with the father and elder brother. Traditional culture imposes respect for elders. [Ref. 4, p. 72]

Today, 75 years after the proclamation of the Republic of Turkey, Turkish society has its contemporary civil norms on family issues and secular identity [Ref. 4, p. 83]. Turkish society is remarkably open. Foreigners can come to observe and criticize and then return for the same purpose. Although there are, of course, cover-ups, means exist to expose them [Ref. 4, p. 75]. What distinguishes Turkey from other Islamic countries is not only the strength of secularists, but the emergence of a broad common ground, which has resulted in both tolerance and growing secular indifference. [Ref. 4, p. 83]

4. The Evolution of Women's Rights in Turkish History

The internal administrative and legal reforms of the Ottoman Empire began during the period of reconstruction, the "Tanzimat (1839-1871)." The "Tanzimat" cannot adequately be understood if it is viewed only in terms of foreign political intervention, administrative reforms, or economic incorporation. It was also, in a sense, a cultural revolution, albeit a limited one. The scribes—by now bureaucrats—who came to dominate the state during the "Tanzimat" were a new breed [Ref. 3, p. 68]. The main development in the administrative system of the Ottoman Empire at the central level in this period was ongoing rationalization and specialization, whereby a complete set of ministries and boards patterned on those of European governments was gradually established [Ref. 3, p. 60]. The Ottoman Empire had to learn a new perspective: how to become a part of the Western community.

Although women's life in the Ottoman Empire was hemmed in by innumerable restrictions, they were not completely passive sufferers. Throughout the last quarter of the nineteenth century, women struggled vigorously for more and better education. In fact, as early as 1863, under Sultan Abdul-Aziz, a college for the training of women teachers was founded in Istanbul, followed by opening primary schools for girls. The first women's magazine, *Progress*, appeared in 1869. Under Sultan Abdulhamit, another weekly, *The World of Women*, began publication. Its contributors and editorial staff were all women. Women writers of that time were no longer mere poets singing of love, nightingales, and nature; they studied deeply the social and educational questions that affected their lives. [Ref. 1, p. 28]

In 1869, a new Regulation for Public Education was issued, based on the advice of the French Ministry of Education. This new regulation foresaw a three-tier system of education, starting with "Rusdiye" schools in every large village, town, or town quarter, civilian "Idadiye" secondary schools in every town, and colleges called "Sultaniye" schools, modeled on the French lycees, in every provincial capital. These were all-male schools, but the regulation made provisions for separate schools for girls. In the 1870s, progress was still very slow, but in the following era, the reign of Sultan Abdulhamit, the network of primary and secondary schools spread rapidly [Ref. 3, p.65]. The daughters of wealthy families, who were educated privately in either English or French literature, were allowed to attend foreign schools, such as the American College for girls in Istanbul, which was founded in 1875 [Ref. 1, p. 127]. During the first Balkan War, the women's section of the Red Crescent, founded in 1877, trained the first nurses. [Ref. 1, p.28]

The twentieth century opened for the Ottoman society on July 23, 1908 with the restoration of the constitution of 1876, shelved 30 years earlier by the reign of Sultan Abdulhamit. Contemporaries recognized that this was an event of momentous significance that would alter their lives beyond recognition. A society that had been closed to the outside was suddenly thrown open, at least in cities and towns. Censorship was lifted and newspapers and magazines, representing all communities of the empire and a wide assortment of opinions, flooded the market to satisfy the curiosity of the public. As though in a rush to make amends for the years lost by the Hamidian generation, the Young Turks, the innovative, contemporary generation of the post-Hamidian period, experimented with virtually every sphere of life; hardly anything was

left untouched. They not only changed the political system, but they also attempted to refashion society by borrowing more freely from the West than ever before. Though it was still too early to talk of feminism, the Young Turks period did see the establishment of a women's organization committed to their welfare. [Ref. 2, p. 31]

As with so many other issues, the issue of equal rights for women came to the fore after the revolution of 1908 [Ref. 2, p. 84]. Turkish women saw a significant change in 1908, when the return to constitutional monarchy brought into positions of power men whose political and social creed laid strong emphasis on women's education. During this period, women started to organize themselves. The first women's club, Taali Nisvan, not only invited lecturers and opened courses, but, under the energetic leadership of the famous writer Halide Edib, it also founded day care centers for children. [Ref. 2, p. 28]. The intelligentsia viewed the restoration of the constitution as the "declaration of freedom" for everyone in Ottoman society [Ref. 2, p. 84]. That included women, at least the politically conscious middle-class women of Istanbul, though not the old-regime women in the harem. Such women disappeared from Turkish society with the abolition of the monarchy and the exile of the Ottoman house. The rest, peasant and working women, may have expected their lot to improve simply because that of their men had, but they did not necessarily expect their lot as *women* to improve. [Ref. 2, p. 84]

The principal concern of the urban, upper- and middle-class woman was to extend her personal rights by getting her due in marriage, divorce, and inheritance. As Ottoman society at its upper levels was reformed in the nineteenth century, upper-class women made very slight gains. But they knew that they had a long way to go before they could achieve anything close to parity with the men of their class. The year 1908 brought hopes

of radical reform, with the Young Turk press proclaiming that "Women must be liberated from the shackles of tradition." The liberal wing of the Young Turk movement understood that Turkish society could not be transformed until women were free to play an active role. They were, after all, at least one half of society. Educated women were expected to play a modernizing role both in the family and in society at large [Ref. 2, p. 84-85]. After 1908, the position of the middle-class woman improved in that she had much easier access to education—to school and university—and had less limited access to work. She could now go into public places, as well as places of entertainment; she could even act on stage, which heretofore had been the domain of Armenian women, who spoke Ottoman Turkish without an accent [Ref. 2, p. 85-86]. The Young Turks encouraged women to appear in public with their husbands and to go to theatres and musical performances. At the Turkish Nationalist clubs of the Turkish Hearth movement, women not only listened to speeches, but also gave them [Ref. 3, p. 126]. Educated women from the upper-class started to discard their veils or to use very thin ones; in 1912, unveiled Turkish women attended a reception at the American Embassy. [Ref. 1, p. 127]

While the "Westerners" in the Young Turk movement were aware of all this, they lacked the political strength to push through anything so radical against the opposition of conservatives and reactionaries. Just as they failed to keep their promises to improve the lot of peasants and workers, so, too, they failed to do anything significant for these women. Initially, women felt sufficiently free after the revolution to come into public places lightly veiled. But that only aroused the ire of conservatives of all classes who made this issue one of the grounds for attacking the government and launching the

abortive counter-revolution in April 1909. Women were naturally disappointed by the lack of progress they had made. Thus, when *Women's World*, the organ of the Society for the Defense of Women's Rights, appeared on the anniversary of the revolution in 1911, it vented its disappointment and described the occasion as a 'festival for men'. [Ref. 2, p.85]

The situation of the minority of women deteriorated along with that of society as a whole. During the second Balkan War (1912-1913) and the First World War (1911-1914), the government introduced what amounted to forced labor for working women. "Battalions of Women Workers" were set up to do manual jobs vacated by the men at the front, especially in the war industry [Ref. 2, p.85]. Before the war, only a small number of Ottoman women had paying jobs, although a relatively high percentage of the small industrial labor force consisted of women and children. As in other belligerent countries, the lack of manpower caused by the mobilization of men had to be compensated for by women, and this hastened the entry of women into the labor market. The Unionists even founded a "Society for the Employment of Women," which tried to recruit women for service in industry and to regulate their working conditions [Ref. 3, p. 126]. Telephones were installed during the war [Ref. 2, p. 44], and middle-class Muslim women were, for the first time, taken into the bureaucracy, especially in the newly established telephone exchange (the first seven employees were Muslim females [Ref. 1, p.28]) and the post office, which expanded as a result of the abolition of the capitulations in September 1914, when European powers were no longer allowed to have their own postal facilities. [Ref. 2, p. 85]

The extension of women's rights was part of the process of creating a Turkish bourgeoisie that the Unionists had undertaken. Just as they strengthened the bourgeoisie during World War I, so, too, did they extend the rights of women [Ref. 2, p. 86]. Due to the crisis of war, large numbers of veiled and secluded women were catapulted into public life. Suddenly, women were offered jobs in ammunition and food factories, thus enlarging the number of working-class women. The Ottoman Ministry of Trade prepared a law to allow for the creation of a kind of "female labor force." The stocking factory of Urfa, alone, employed 1,000 women. In Izmir, Sivas, Ankara, and Konya, about 4,780 women were employed in rug production. In Aydin, about 11,000, and in Kutahya, Eskisehir and Karahisar about 1,550, were involved in textile manufacture. Parallel to this growth, banks, central and municipal administrations, and hospitals opened their doors to women as well. In 1915, Enver Pasha's wife, princess Emine Naciye, created an association to promote the employment of women in various sectors of industry. During the same year, an imperial decree permitted women to discard the veil during office hours. However, these changes, accelerated by the demands of the war machine, did not meet general approval. Despite the fact that women had begun to contribute to the functioning of public offices, they were often forced by the police to return home if their skirts were shorter than the officially prescribed length. The large-scale military involvement of the Ottoman Empire not only introduced women into Turkey's urban public life, but it also contributed to the challenge of the supremacy of the sharia. [Ref. 1, p. 128]

Although family law still remained the province of the "Sharia," even in this last stronghold of the Islamic State inroads were made [Ref. 3, p. 126]. In 1913, a new law on

inheritance, based on the German code, was introduced. Most important of all, perhaps, were the educational possibilities the Unionist regime created. Girls profited from the growing number of schools on different levels. Furthermore, primary education was made compulsory for girls in 1913. As for higher education, this was, at first, limited to teacher training colleges (which were expanded rapidly after 1913), but from 1914 onwards, a number of courses at the University of Istanbul were opened to women [Ref. 3, p. 126]. After the creation of a kind of "women's university" (Nisvan Darulfunun), regular courses for women students were started on February 7, 1914 [Ref. 1, p.28]. The 1917 "Decree on Family Law" gave women the right of divorce, took marriage out of the hands of the religious authorities and placed it in the hands of the state, and made the wife's consent essential for the man to practice polygamy [Ref. 2, p. 86]. The position of women, at least of middle- and upper-class women in the cities, changed in part due to government policies and in part due to the effects of World War I. [Ref. 3, p. 126]

Women contributed even more selflessly during the Independence War between 1919 and 1923, but their sacrifices brought them no political gains. [Ref. 2, p. 86]. Although Mustafa Kemal Ataturk publicly acknowledged the heroic deeds of Anatolian women in his speech of February 3, 1923, and promised that "Turkish women shall be free to enjoy education and occupy a position equal to that of men as they are entitled to it," the divisive composition of the first Turkish Grand National Assembly obliged him to postpone most of his reformist plans. Society, at that point, was not ready to look upon its women as equals to men. Speakers for the progressive wing, such as Tunalı Hilmi Bey, attempted several times to translate Turkish women's longing for equality into legal

measures, but the conservative majority of clerks and small town merchants succeeded in blocking him. [Ref. 1, p. 130]

Turkish women could neither vote nor run for office. This may seem not at all outrageous when compared to Western practices during that same period. When Article XI of the 1924 constitution--“Every Turk who has completed his thirtieth year may stand for election”--was being discussed, Recep Peker, then a rising Kemalist politician and future prime minister, proposed an amendment to include women. Needless to say, Peker’s amendment was defeated by the same people in parliament who, in general, opposed the Kemalist bourgeois revolution. This is ironic because in the 1923 general election secondary voters in a number of electoral colleges voted for women even though they were not candidates. Mustafa Kemal’s wife Latife Hanim received 39 votes from the conservative Konya, as did a number of other prominent women. The followers were ahead of their leaders. [Ref. 2, p. 86]

Although many Kemalists may have favored the liberation of women “from the shackles of tradition,” they recognized both the power of conservative forces and the hold that tradition had on the society they were struggling to change [Ref. 2, p. 86]. The most important event in the advancement of Turkish women was the adoption of the Swiss Civil Code on October 4, 1926. With the adoption, a complete system of Western private law, Turkey’s legislators wanted to emphasize the importance they placed on the initiative of equality before the law, regardless of gender, and the strengthening of the status of Turkish women within the family [Ref. 1, p. 30]. Parallel to the adoption of the Swiss Civil Code, Article 6 of the Civil Service Law, no. 788 was amended in 1926 in order to secure women the right to be employed as civil servants. Thus, Turkish women,

who had already begun to enter public service in 1880 as teachers, were given a sound legal basis for their employment rights. [Ref. 1, p. 46]

Mustafa Kemal Ataturk, the iconoclast, knew that he risked a major upheaval if he attempted to revolutionize the status of Turkish women. He was willing to harangue crowds against the degrading practice of veiling, but he never dared to abolish it as he did the fez. He set an example by marrying an educated, westernized, liberated Turkish woman, who accompanied him around the country on his tours. He had his adopted daughters brought up as models of the Kemalist woman; one became a professor of history--Professor Afet Inan--at the newly founded University of Ankara, while the other, trained as a pilot for active duty, actually bombed Kurdish rebels in the rebellion of 1937. Both were consciously trained to invade the traditional preserves of men. But Ataturk never attempted to impose his own values regarding women on the country. He was so in tune with the forces of tradition in Islamic society that he predicted the overthrow of the Afghan monarch, King Amanullah, when he learned that the latter outlawed the veil. [Ref. 2, p. 87]

The women who had been active in the national resistance movement founded the Turkish Women's Union in 1924 [Ref. 3, p. 188]. The success of the women's movement, led by the Turkish Women's Union, may be measured by the response of the male population. Judging by the articles and letters the press received, as well as by complaints to the Union itself, many men were anxious about the equality that women were demanding. Apart from a deep-rooted male chauvinism, they were alarmed by the breakdown of the traditional division of labor, in which work had been defined by gender. They saw women as rivals in the job market, "who are taking the bread out of our

mouths." Latife Bekir Hanim, the president of the Women's Union, protested against this growing trend against women. Contrary to the way some men saw the movement, she said that women did not see men as rivals, but as partners. Women were not seeking equality so that every woman could throw herself into life outside the home, but simply to prove that they were as capable and mature as men. Men were advised not to complain about women working; on the contrary, they should be delighted because women were now bringing bread home. [Ref. 2, p. 88]

But the Kemalists did not remain passive against conservative opposition. If they were unable to launch a frontal attack against tradition, that did not prevent them from sapping its foundations. The organizing of a "Miss Turkey" contest by the newspaper *Cumhuriyet* in 1929 was a step in this direction. It was the first time that such an event had been organized in Turkey, and possibly the first time in a predominantly Islamic society. The press gave the event great publicity, describing the process of choosing a "Miss Turkey" in detail. It was a political and not a commercial event, another way of introducing innovation and emulating Europe and the civilized world. The following year, "Miss Turkey 1930" went to Rio de Janeiro to participate in the Miss Universe contest. Two years later, the year Turkey joined the League of Nations, Keriman Halis, Miss Turkey for 1932, won the Miss Universe title. Twenty years later, in August 1952, when Gunseli Basar was chosen as Miss Europe, this seemed Europe's way of unofficially accepting a two-party Turkey, which had sent troops to Korea and joined the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. [Ref. 2, p. 87]

The beauty contests were also partly designed to undermine the prudery of the urban lower middle class and build a sense of confidence among its women. (In the early

1930s, public beaches around Istanbul were also opened to women.) Only unmarried girls with schooling, daughters of minor civil servants, and the like, were allowed to participate in such events. They were the kind of women who needed to be “liberated” for clerical work in the bureaucracy. By the early 1930s, women were becoming part of the expanding work force in large numbers, and the need for labor continued to grow as the state industrialized and opened factories throughout Anatolia. In the cities, women took to the professions and became teachers, lawyers, and judges, and even the police force was opened to them. As a result of expanding opportunities, the practice of arranged marriages began to break down, and some women were marrying according to their wishes. A new form of family life based on the nuclear family began to emerge in the cities. Women like Keriman Halis, Miss Turkey and Miss Universe 1932, became symbols of newly found freedom. They also saw themselves as a part of the Kemalist revolution; upon winning the Miss Universe title, Keriman Halis sent a telegram to Mustafa Kemal Atatürk stating: “My success is the result of the ideas inspired by you in the women of our country.” [Ref. 2, p. 88]

With economic progress in the 1930s came a certain amount of freedom for women. Women had always worked on the land. But now virtually every major industry from textiles to cigarettes used their labor. In fact, there were complaints that women in Anatolian towns were not applying in sufficient numbers for the jobs in the new factories. The economic role that women had come to play required that they be given a new political status [Ref. 2, p. 89]. Speakers and members of the Women’s League, an Istanbul women’s association located with a predominant membership of professional women, articulated requests for political rights for Turkish women. This association

amended its by-laws in 1927 and started to pronounce itself in favor of political rights. Its president, Nezihe Muhittin, declared: "Revolutions are born out of just demands. We shall continue to put forward our claims at each election and in the end we shall obtain the right to vote as citizens." Yet, it would be erroneous to state that the League exercised a determining influence on this issue. The agenda for political rights for women was not set by a selected women's organization, but directly by Ataturk himself. For about four years following the transition to a secular civil code, the question of political rights for women was ignored, but it suddenly came before Parliament in 1930. On that day, Professor Afet Inan, adopted daughter of Ataturk, gave a formal lecture in Ataturk's People's House defending the necessity of granting men and women the right to participate in public affairs. [Ref. 1, p. 22]

Thus, in April 1930, women were granted the right to vote in the municipal elections to be held later that year. Four years later, in December 1934, Parliament voted unanimously to allow women not only to vote in legislative elections, but also to be candidates. When the general election was held in February 1935, 18 women were elected to the new house. Sixteen of them were urban; three had middle school diplomas; one had a high school education; and the rest boasted even higher educational credentials. Only one of them represented the peasantry. Sekibe Icel, the wife of a disabled soldier, managed their small farm in the province of Bursa. She had also been elected village head and met Mustafa Kemal Ataturk during his tours of Anatolia in 1930-1931. He was so impressed by her intelligence and her awareness of the country's problems, that he instructed her to stand for Parliament and she was duly elected on the party list. [Ref. 2, p. 89]

The rapid rise in the political and social status of Turkish women culminated in the Women's Union hosting the Twelfth Congress of the International Alliance for Suffrage and Equal Citizenship. The Congress, which had the full support of the regime, was held in the Yildiz Palace in Istanbul in April 1935. One of the topics discussed was cooperation between women, particularly in matters relating to social customs and laws that held back women around the world. *The Times* (23 May 1935) observed that "The Turkish representatives feel well qualified to speak on this subject as their experience during the past generation gives them a perspective of social change which has been afforded to few." After the Congress, a delegation went to Ankara and was received by Ataturk. He lauded their activities and told the delegation that "just as the women and men of Turkey have joined forces to create the new Turkey, so must the women and men of all nations join together to preserve the peace of the world." [Ref. 2, p. 89]

Soon after Ataturk's message, the government dissolved the Turkish Women's Union in a summary manner; its last meeting was held on May 10, 1935. The Union was said to have served its purpose and lost its "raison d'être" now that women had acquired political parity with men. That was considered sufficient; anything more was thought to be disruptive of the social order. Men and women were expected to work together in harmony rather than be in competition or conflict. [Ref. 2, p. 89-90]

The women's movement, without any broad base of support in society, succumbed without protest to the dictates of the state. Only the female journalist Sabiha Sertel registered protest. She wrote that, while it was true that women had acquired political equality with men, they had a long way to go to achieve social and economic

equality. The battle would be long and hard, and women needed an organization to wage it. [Ref. 2, p. 90]

Turkey is a secular republic, almost all of whose inhabitants are Muslim. On the one hand, the secular nature of the Turkish State sets it apart from almost all other countries with Muslim majorities. On the other hand, Turkey's Islamic religion sets it apart from Western and other rich countries, whose cultures have been molded primarily by different religious traditions, but to whose ranks Turkey aspires. In both cases, Turkey's unique mixture of secularism and Islam provides a rich source of misunderstanding [Ref. 4, p. 76]. Under the impact of the Kemalist revolution, the face of Turkey changed beyond recognition if we look at only the cities and towns. The countryside did not change as dramatically, though not for lack of trying. The railway policy of the government had an appreciable impact. It led to an expansion of the rail network, whose goal was to integrate Anatolia into a national market; the process was finally completed only in the 1950s and 1960s with the construction of roads, not railways, under American auspices [Ref. 2, p. 90].

III. UNITED STATES ARMED FORCES POLICIES FOR MANAGING WOMEN IN THE MILITARY AND DISCUSSION OF POLICIES FOR THE TURKISH NAVY

A. PHYSIOLOGICAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN

The following section contains findings concerning physiological gender differences and their military significance [Ref. 11 p. C-3]:

1. Body Composition

In general, women are at a distinct disadvantage when performing military tasks requiring muscular strength because of their lower muscle mass. Compared to the average male Army recruit, the average female Army recruit is 4.8 inches shorter, weighs 31.7 pounds less, and has 37.4 pounds less muscle mass and 5.7 pounds more fat mass [Ref.11 p. C-3]. Since fat mass is inversely related to aerobic capacity and heat tolerance, the average woman is also at a disadvantage when performing aerobic activities such as marching with heavy loads and working in the heat [Ref.12]. However, a woman's higher body fat is an advantage in swimming. The higher percentage of body fat allows women to swim higher in the water with less body drag. As a result, gender differences in swimming performance are not as great in other sports such as track and field. [Ref.13]

2. Muscular Strength

Strength is defined as the maximal force a muscle or a muscle group can generate at specified velocity [Ref.14]. Muscle strength is related to the cross sectional area of the

muscle. The quality of muscle tissue and quantity of muscle fibers are the same in men and women, but the cross-sectional area of muscle fiber is 30 percent greater in men. This difference in cross-sectional area accounts for much of the difference in performance between genders. [Ref.15]

In general, men exhibit higher strength scores than women, but there is a significant degree of overlap between the genders. Women have been reported to have 55 percent of the upper torso, 72 percent of the lower torso, and 64 percent of the trunk isometric strength of men [Ref.16]. A 1985 U.S. Army investigation found women exhibited 60 to 65 percent of the upper and lower isometric force of men [Ref.17]. A U.S. Navy study reported that the dynamic upper torso strength of women ranged from 46 percent to 58 percent of men. [Ref.18]

Robertson and Trent reported the overlap in dynamic strength scores between Navy men and women was seven percent (i.e., 17 of 239 women had higher strength scores than the lowest scoring men.) [Ref.19]

Higher androgen levels in men account for the large strength differences between genders. Androgens are potent muscle building hormones that are responsible for much of the muscle enlargement seen in men during the adolescent growth spurt, and as a result of strength training. Because women have low levels of androgens, they experience little muscle enlargement from strength training. Women can greatly improve their strength, but they do not develop large muscles [Ref.13]. However, they have shown an equivalent percentage increase in muscular strength as men who begin at a similar state of training. [Ref.14]

3. Cardiorespiratory Capacity

Cardiorespiratory capacity is related to the efficiency of the heart, lungs and blood vessels to deliver oxygen to the working muscles. In general, women have smaller heart mass, heart volume, and cardiac output than men [Ref.11 p. C-5]. The amount of blood ejected during each contradiction (stroke volume) and blood hemoglobin content of women is lower than that of men. Accordingly, the blood transports less oxygen, which when added to the lower cardiac output, results in a lower female aerobic capacity. [Ref.13]

The most widely used laboratory assessment of cardiorespiratory capacity is termed maximal oxygen consumption, or "VO₂ max." It has been reported that male and female Army recruits, representing a young civilian population, entered the military service with VO₂ max scores of 51 and 37 ml/kg/min (women exhibited 73 percent of men's score). In a field setting, maximal run times have been used by the military services to assess cardiorespiratory fitness. Research findings indicate that one- and two-mile run times of Army women were 74 percent and 79 percent of those of men, respectively. [Ref.20]

The evaluation of cardiorespiratory capacity provides a valuable index of one's ability to sustain submaximal work over a period of time and may be a factor in the success of military operations involving load carrying during extended marches. Endurance test results of a study conducted at the United States Military Academy illustrate the percentage of maximum oxygen consumption required by male and female cadets carrying 44.1 and 70.5-pound military loads at different velocities [Ref. 11 p. C-5, 6]. It is evident that the percentage of maximum oxygen consumption needed by women

is significantly greater than men when carrying either the 44.1 or the 70.5-pound load. The military application of this research is believed to be significant. During marches, carrying the same load at the same velocity, individuals working at a lower percentage of their maximum oxygen consumption will perform more efficiently and will be able to continue marching for a longer period of time. [Ref.11 p. C-5]

4. Muscular Demanding Task Performance

The following research studies were conducted by the services in order to develop occupationally based strength standards. Development of strength standards allows the services to assign personnel to specialties that match their physical capabilities, regardless of their gender [Ref.11 p. C-6]. The studies were based on male subjects from each of the services, as indicated in the subtopics below.

a. Army

An analysis of U.S. Army occupational specialties found that the most frequently performed physically demanding tasks involve heavy lifting/lowering (41 percent of the 1,999 critical tasks in the U.S. Army), carrying/load bearing (30 percent of the 1,999 critical tasks in the U.S. Army), pushing/pulling (11 percent of the 1,999 critical tasks in the U.S. Army) [Ref.21]. Based on the data provided by this task analysis, a research study measured specialty-related lifting/lowering, carrying/load bearing, and pushing/pulling performance of male and female recruits. The purpose of the lift test was to determine the heaviest weight that a soldier could lift and place on a shelf at chest height. The test simulated a soldier lifting equipment onto the bed of a 2.5-ton vehicle.

The carry test measured the distance a soldier could carry the heaviest piece of equipment lifted to chest height. The push test measured the distance a soldier could push a specified weight in 30 seconds. The torque test assessed the maximum amount of torque a soldier could generate by pulling on a stationary bolt. This test simulated such common tasks as engine repair or changing tires. Results of this investigation indicated that the performance of women during muscularly demanding lifting, carrying, pushing and pulling tasks ranged from 59.4 percent to 69.6 percent of men. [Ref.22]

b. Navy

Robertson and Trent, [Ref.19], have found the majority of physically demanding tasks performed by Navy personnel involve heavy lifting, carrying, and pushing efforts. The percent of men meeting standards were 100 percent (Drop Tank Carry), 99 percent (Fuel Hose Drag), and 50 percent (MK-82 Bomb Lift). The percent of women meeting standards on the same tasks was 68 percent, one percent, and zero percent, respectively. The overlap in the distribution of scores for Navy men and women on the MK-82 Bomb Lift was ten percent (26 of 259 women performed better than the lowest performing men).

Robertson and Trent, [Ibid.], also found significant gender differences in emergency shipboard task performance. The percent of Navy men meeting standards for handling a 2.5-inch fire hose, lifting and carrying a P-250 water pump, and extricating an individual using a stretcher-carry were 100 percent, 96 percent, and 100 percent, respectively. However, the same jobs for women were 94 percent, 1.0 percent, and 12 percent, respectively.

The primary muscular demand of handling a fire hose nozzle involves the rapid continuous sweep (both horizontal and vertical) of the nozzle, while wearing 14-pounds of cumbersome oxygen breathing apparatus. The emergency P-250 water pump weighs 147 pounds and was to be lifted out of a storage case and rapidly carried by two individuals to the scene of a fire or a flooded compartment. Two stretcher-bearers must carry a victim (the average Navy man weighs 166 pounds) in a Stokes stretcher (25 pounds), up or down very steep ladders and maneuver through very tight spaces.

c. Air Force

Physically demanding tasks within Air Force Specialty Codes (AFSC) were identified to be manual material handling activities requiring lift/lower, push/pull, and carry and holding efforts. Women's performance on three specialty-related tasks (holding a box overhead, carrying a toolbox, and pushing equipment (waist level)) was found to be 52.8 percent, 55.4 percent, and 70.7 percent that of men, respectively.

[Ref.23]

d. Marine Corps

Acting on the premise that every Marine is first and foremost a rifleman, it was decided that an analysis of this occupational specialty, rifleman (MOS0311), would serve as the foundation for job requirements and fitness standards of the U.S. Marine Corps. Environment and geography are significant factors in the tasks required of Marine rifleman, therefore tasks performed during combat training in desert, high altitude/cold weather, amphibious and jungle environments were described and quantified. This work

was conducted by exercise physiologists from the Institute of Human Performance. Since testing involved Marines assigned to combat units, women did not participate as research subjects. [Ref.11 p. C-10]

During Combined Arms Exercises in the Mojave Desert, the need for aerobic fitness was determined during repeated assaults on bunker complexes by fire teams from a Battalion Landing Team. The upper body strength requirement was identified as important in the manual handling of supplies. [Ref.24]

Observations were also made with the 1st Battalion, 7th Marines at the Marine Corps Mountain Warfare Center, Pickel Meadows, CA in a high-altitude, cold weather combat environment. A high aerobic and strength requirement was identified during sustained marches on snowshoes. Loads exceeded 100 pounds and marches were accomplished up and down steep inclines, often in the dark and across uneven terrain for periods of several hours. [Ref.25]

Several observations of amphibious operations were conducted at Camp Pendleton, CA, Coronado, CA, and Hawaii with elements of the 1st Battalion, 3rd Marines. The need for high levels of upper torso strength was most evident during off-loading of a Marine unit from an amphibious landing craft. Marines were dressed in full combat gear and were required to climb over the side of a combat cargo ship and onto a landing craft amid 15-20 foot sea swells at night. Conceivably, one mistake under these conditions would result in a catastrophic injury to either the Marines disembarking or the Navy sailors manning the ladder. [Ref.26]

Jungle operations were observed at the U.S. Army's Jungle Operations Training Center in Fort Sherman, Panama. Specific tasks identified as unique to the

jungle environment included sustained swimming while towing equipment, rappelling and working with a machete. [Ref.27]

5. Injury

Research findings have indicated a high risk for injury in Army basic combat training. During training, 51 percent of women and 27 percent of men were injured. The risk of lower extremity injury for women was 2.13 times that of men, and for stress fractures it was 4.71 times that of men. The higher risk of injury for women was related to a lower level of fitness when compared to men. [Ref.28]

It has also been reported that 54 percent of women sustained reportable injuries during Army basic training than males. These injuries resulted in a mean time loss of 13-days. During this study, women participated in an integrated conditioning program and completed extensive road marches wearing, combat boots. Incidence of injury was correlated to greater body weight and fat, and limited leg strength. [Ref.29]

6. Environmental Stress

In general, women are more sensitive to the effects of thermal stress because of several factors, including lower cardiorespiratory fitness, higher body fat content, and lower skin surface area. During marches at a set pace, women exercise at a greater percentage of their aerobic capacity than men, resulting in a higher heart rate, oxygen consumption and heat production. Because of this higher metabolic rate, women experience an earlier onset of fatigue and are at greater risk of heat injury than men during forced marches in a hot environment [Ref.30]. Studies have not found

operationally significant gender differences in heat tolerance among acclimatized men and women of similar fitness. [Ref.31] [Ref.32]

Studies have demonstrated comparable tolerance to acute hypoxia (altitude sickness) in men and women [Ref.33], [Ref.34]. Women are perhaps more resistant than men to chronic hypoxia. Women reported less gastrointestinal and cardiovascular symptoms associated with acute mountain sickness [Ref.35]. A more recent study has confirmed this reduced female likelihood of acute mountain sickness. [Ref.36]

Women have been reported to have an advantage in tolerating cold exposure because of higher relative body fat content. Not all studies, however, demonstrated this female "advantage." When percent of body fat is controlled, men at rest in cold water demonstrated less heat loss than women of similar body fat. This may be because thin women have a higher surface to mass ratio than thin men. [Ref.37]

Gravity (G) stress is a factor to be considered in certain types of military aviation. A 1986 study compared the +G tolerance of 102 women and 139 men and found no significant differences in tolerance of exposures up to +7G during Gradual Onset Runs (GOR) and Rapid Onset Runs (ROR). There was a strong negative correlation between physical height and G-tolerance, and a weaker positive correlation between physical weight and G-tolerance. Thus, women benefited by being shorter than men, but were adversely affected by being lighter than men are. [Ref.38]

A more recent study conducted by Fischer and Wiegman found that women's G-level tolerance (both relaxed and straining), and G-duration tolerance (at levels above +7G) might be less than that of men. Results showed that a proportionate number of men and women (55.9 percent and 56.5 percent, respectively) attempted +8G for 15 seconds

but, of those attempting the run, 63.2 percent of the women, compared to 80.9 percent of the men completed the run. Fewer women than men (31.4 percent and 42.0 percent, respectively) attempted +9Gz for 15 seconds, with 59.4 percent of the women and 72.6 percent of the men completing the run. The authors suggested that some of the difference might be possibly due to the females' poor-fitting anti-G suits. [Ref.39]

The symposium on Women in Combat Aircraft, co-sponsored by the Presidential Commission on the Assignment of Women in the Armed Forces, reported that there was no evidence in the scientific literature that defined a physiological basis to categorically restrict women from selection opportunities for combat aviation. [Ref.40]

A comprehensive review of the literature conducted by Lyons reported that the possibility of fetal damage in the early stages of pregnancy (before the diagnosis of pregnancy) appears to be the single biggest medical concern to allowing women access to aviation careers. [Ref.41]

7. Cognitive Factors

Cognitive differences that exist between the genders are generally not as clear-cut nor consistent as physical differences. The most well-established differences are those in the areas of spatial and verbal abilities. Men have demonstrated to be quicker than women in forming a mental picture and in distinguishing left from right [Ref.42]. Sherman has speculated that spatial ability differences may be the result of differential sex role or sex stereotype experiences [Ref.43]. Harris suggests that spatial skills are trainable and that female performance levels might be brought up to male scores with appropriate training. [Ref.44]

Female superiority in verbal ability appears to be as well-established, as male superiority in spatial ability. It has been reported that women score significantly higher than men in the area of vocabulary and word fluency [Ref.45]. Among U.S. Air Force pilot candidates, women performed better on verbal dexterity tests, while men performed better on mechanical tests [Ref.46]. A Canadian study reported superior female ability in verbal ability and clerical speed/accuracy, but better male performance on tests of mechanical reasoning, visual/spatial ability, and quantitative ability. [Ref.47]

In terms of military significance, empirical data from contemporary research in sensation, perception, and psychomotor skills do not demonstrate meaningful differences in the capabilities and/or limitations of men and women and therefore should not be used as a basis for predicting differences in the abilities of members of either gender to perform effectively in combat aircraft. [Ref.48]

8. Occupational Standards

In 1976, the General Accounting Office (GAO) found that enlisted Army women are in some cases being mis-assigned to Military Occupational Specialties (MOS) beyond their physical ability. According to testimony of Colonel Kowal, this practice still exists and costs about \$16,000 for a track vehicle mechanic to be re-assigned and trained to another MOS [Ref.49]. Based on these findings, the GAO issued recommendations to the military Services to develop physical and operational fitness standards for specialties that are gender-neutral. The anticipated benefits from using such a system in an operational environment include greater productivity and efficiency, as well as lower injury rates. [Ref.11 p. C-13]

a. Army

The Exercise Physiology Division of the U.S. Army Institute of Environmental Medicine (USARIEM), under the direction of Dr. James A. Vogel, was tasked by the Army Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel in 1977 to develop a fitness test battery to help match soldier capabilities with specific MOS strength requirements. This began a five-year effort involving several major on-site field studies prior to the actual implementation of a new screening procedure. A Military Entrance Physical Strength Capacity Test (MEPSCAT) was developed for use at the Military Entrance Processing Station (MEPS) to determine minimum lifting ability and help enlistees select a MOS commensurate with their physical abilities. The MEPSCAT is based on lifting standards developed by the Department of Labor. [Ref.11 p. C-13]

Although the Army made a concerted effort to develop this system, the MEPSCAT was never used as intended. It was initially used only as a recruiting guidance tool, and then was eliminated altogether in 1990 for political reasons [Ref.49]. The MEPSCAT failed because of disagreement about whether standards reflect peacetime or wartime requirements [Ref.50].

Gregor investigated the possibility of developing a gender-neutral standard for evaluating the physical performance of men and women. He found that if current male physical fitness standards were used to evaluate women, then at every stage of an Army career most women would fail, and even women with superior physical capabilities would seldom pass the male mean score. Using data from Army ROTC cadets and published studies, he observed that the physical capabilities of women in the top 20 percent was equal to that of men in the bottom 20 percent. Similarly, despite ROTC

training, only three percent of cadet women achieve the male mean score on the Army Physical Aptitude Test, and 68 percent would fail under male standards. He compared the physical potential of the top ten cadet men and women and observed a wide gap that no training system could close. In general, cadet women were found to be superior to Army women, but they do not achieve male means. [Ref. 50]

In his research for "The Presidential Commission On The Assignment Of Women In The Armed Forces", Gregor, investigated the effects of aging and reported that, generally women over the age of 32 failed to meet the minimum male standard for retention. The proportion of mid-career women with permanent orthopedic injuries was also much greater than men. The author felt that the wide disparity between the "average" performance of men and women makes training of men and women together for direct combat, impractical. Doing so would either undermine standards or frustrate women, and both results would have harmful consequences on unit performance and morale. Absent a male manpower shortage, LTC Gregor concluded it would be unwise to open assignments in the combat arms to women. [Ref.50]

b. Navy

The Navy does not have strength standards for occupational ratings. However, there are four programs that have more stringent fitness standards: (1) Airmen, (2) Diver, (3) Explosive Ordnance Disposal, and (4) Sea, Air, and Land (SEAL) teams. All four programs receive their personnel from a variety of ratings and, with the exception of the SEAL program, are open to women. Only the SEAL Program requires a fitness assessment to maintain qualifications in Naval Special Warfare. [Ref.11 p. C-15]

c. Air Force

The Air Force requires strength screening of Air Force applicants for enlistment at the Military Entrance Processing Center (MEPS). Strength standards are based on lifting capacity determined by an incremental lift machine (X-factor). MEPS personnel perform the test of the physical examination. The minimum requirement for enlistment in the Air Forces is a 40-pound lift. Additionally, some skills require a greater lift requirement. All lift requirements are gender-neutral. All women currently serving in each specialty meet X-factor standards. If an applicant selects a specialty that is above the individual's tested X-factor, the applicant is classified into a different specialty. There have been neither approved nor documented waiver requests for exceptions to the minimum X-factor. Strength testing can be repeated if requested by training personnel for cross-training purposes, after medical personnel clear the individual to repeat the testing. Re-testing is conducted by Morale, Welfare and Recreation (MWR) Personnel. All men and women tested for X-factor weight-lifting requirements were able to meet the minimum-lifting requirement of 40 pounds. However, only 68 percent of men and 0.8 percent of women were able to meet the 110 pound lift requirement. [Ref.11 p. C-15, 16]

d. Marine Corps

The Marine Corps does not conduct occupational strength-testing at recruiting training, or at any other level. In addition to the semi-annual physical fitness test (PFT), all Marines assigned to Fleet Marine Force units are required to complete a force march, with load-bearing equipment, two canteens, a helmet, and a pack with a prescribed load (40 pounds). The Marine also carries an individual or crew-served

weapon. The Marine must march 15-miles at a rate of three miles per hour, within a total of five hours. [Ref.11 p. C-16]

e. Coast Guard

The Coast Guard does not conduct any entry level physical fitness testing. General fitness, Coast Guard Academy, Officer Candidate School, and recruit training physical standards are gender-normed. Gender-neutral standards exist for aviators, boat crews, boarding teams, rescue swimmers, and divers. [Ref.11 p. C-16]

Female and male service members, regardless their physiological differences defined above, are equally inevitable assets of each services. Policies intended to increase the efficiency of each individual service member should regard these physiological differences to screen the right person for the right job with the appropriate qualifications. However, the physiological differences should never be used as barriers for the career of service members.

**B. UNITED STATES ARMED FORCES POLICIES FOR MANAGING
WOMEN IN THE MILITARY**

1. Family Care Policy

United States Navy Family Care Policy assists members in developing pragmatic family care plans, to establish procedural requirements in accordance with the Department of Defense's (DoD) and the Secretary of Navy's (SECNAV) instructions. This policy applies to all Navy personnel serving on active duty or in the Ready Reserve,

who are single service members, or members of dual military couples that have responsibility for family members or other dependents. However, this policy is not intended to, and does not, create any right of entitlement, cause for action, nor defense in favor for any individual. [Ref. 51]

a. Background

The nature of naval service dictates that members must be ready to deploy throughout the world on short notice, and be able to fully execute their military and professional duties. For members with dependents, the ability to meet this requirement is directly related to the degree of prior family-care planning. Through planning benefits, both the Navy and the member, by ensuring proper care for dependents, reduce stress on the member and maintain a deployable asset for the command.

Planning to ensure the care of family members and dependents is of great value to, and required for, every member. However, it is especially crucial for single members with dependents. Requirements of Family Care Policy is detailed below:

b. Requirements

Service members are given the following responsibilities in this policy:

- Ensure family members are cared during deployments, reserve mobilizations, and temporary duty as well as at all other times.
- The primary responsibility for initiating and developing a workable family care plan rests with the individual member.
- The responsibility of the member to provide the caregiver all information and documentation needed to execute the Family Care Plan, and provide for the member's dependents.

The formal documentation of a member's Family Care Plan is required under any of the following conditions:

- A single parent with custody of children under 19-years of age.
- Both members of a dual military couple with custody of children under 19-years of age.
- Family circumstances or other personal status changes in which the member becomes solely responsible for the care (housing, medical, logistical, financial, food, clothing, or transportation) of another person. Such circumstances include, are not limited to:
 - Birth of a child or adoption of a child less than 19-years of age.
 - Loss of a spouse through death, separation or divorce, or spouse's injury or illness of such a nature that the spouse is unable to care for family members or other dependents.
 - Enlistment (or commissioning) in any military service (active duty or reserve component) by a spouse which results in the member and spouse becoming a dual military couple with dependents.
 - Assumptions of sole care for an elderly, disabled, or chronically sick family member who is unable to care for himself or herself, in absence of the member.
 - Extended, recurring, or other absence of a civilian spouse through career/job commitments or personal reasons which, in the opinion of the commanding officer, may impact on the member's deployability.
 - A family member who has a limited command of the local language or is unable to drive or otherwise gains access to basic life-sustaining facilities (i.e. food, medical, care).

The Family Care Plan shall designate one or more caregivers who will agree to provide for the affected members of the member's family or dependents. "Family Care Plan Certificate (NAVPERS 1740/6)" and "Family Care Plan Arrangements (NAVPERS 1740/7)" shall be used to document the Family Care Plan. By signing these forms, the caregiver acknowledges and accepts responsibility for the care of the member's family and provisions contained in the Family Care Plan for short- and long-term separations. Specific requirements include:

- Family Care Plan Certificate (NAVPERS 1740/6) shall be signed by both the caregiver(s) and the member. It includes a statement that the caregiver has been thoroughly briefed on financial arrangements, logistical arrangements (including discussion on arrangements to relocate the caregiver or family member to a designated location), location of important papers, military facilities, services, benefits and entitlements of the family members.
- A new Family Care Plan Certificate (NAVPERS 1740/6) will not normally be required when a Family Care Plan is updated unless the caregiver, or the conditions, under which the caregiver will provide care, has changed.
- A copy of all powers of attorney prepared for the caregiver shall be included with the statement.
- The member shall submit the forms through the chain of command as part of the Family Care Plan Certificate package.

The Family Care Plan shall include written provisions for:

- Short- and long-term absences
- At the discretion of the commanding officer, other kind of absences. The commanding officer's decision should take into account the individual member's level of responsibility.
- Arrangements for the financial well being of family members covered by Family Care Plan during separations. Arrangements should include power(s) of attorney, allotments, or other appropriate means to ensure the self-sufficiency and financial security of family members.
- Logistical movement of the family or caregiver. Logistical arrangements shall include arrangements for relocation, if necessary, of the caregiver or family to a new location and the financial, medical, and legal arrangements necessary to ensure continuity of care of family members during movement. Logistical arrangements must provide for the financial support necessary to transport the family or caregiver to a designated location if government transportation is not authorized. Consideration of a non-military escort for family members requiring assistance such as infants, children, or elderly disabled adults, should be outlined when personal family considerations dictate.
- Alternate caregiver(s) in the event the primary caregiver(s) becomes unable to perform duties under the Family Care Plan. Planning should include arrangements for logistical, financial, medical, and legal support necessary to ensure continuity of care for family members.
- Any other information deemed necessary by the commanding officer or the member who would be needed by the command in order to activate the member's Family Care Plan in the absence of the member. In addition, a documented Family Care Plan package can assist the command in ensuring

the temporary welfare of a member's dependents in the event of the member's injury or death.

Single parents and dual couples with minor children shall designate a person who, in the event of their death or incapacity of the service member, will assume temporary responsibility for their minor children until a legal guardian is appointed by a court of competent jurisdiction or the non-custodial natural parent assumes custody. This temporary designation is not a substitute for the appointment of a legal guardian in a will, it shall be recorded in the remarks section of the member's service record.

Military mothers of newborns shall be deferred from travel away from the home station for four-months following the delivery. Single members or one member of a military couple, who adopt a child shall, receive the same consideration for four-months after the date that the child is placed in the home as part of the formal adoption process. Similarly, Reserve component members shall be deferred from involuntary recall to active duty for four months after delivery or adoption placement. The deferment is terminated if the member gives up custody of the child or voluntarily cancels the deferment in writing. This provision is to assist the member in developing a Family Care Plan, and to establish a pattern of childcare. A new or updated Family Care Plan is required within 60-days of birth of a child or placement in the home of an adopted child.

[Ibid.]

2. Equal Opportunity Policy

The provisions of the United States Navy Equal Opportunity (EO) Policy, [Ref.52], apply to all active duty Navy and Naval Reserve units, and assigned civilian

personnel without regard to race, ethnicity, religion, gender, or national origin within the constraints of the law.

a. Policy

The EO policy identifies actions to assist in achieving the following goals:

attaining an officer and enlisted population that reflects the general population:

- recruiting of qualified personnel;
- retaining eligible personnel;
- providing fair and equal military education opportunities for all qualified personnel;
- ensuring an equitable assignment process and leadership opportunities for all Navy personnel;
- providing EO training for Navy service members;
- ensuring EO for promoting and advancement for all personnel;
- ensuring that discrimination is permitted neither in the administration of military justice nor in the involuntary separation of personnel;
- ensuring that all personnel may participate equally in all occupational areas and warfare specialties within the legal bounds;
- monitoring the EO climate; and
- ensuring discrimination complaint procedures are timely and effective.

A command environment in which equal opportunity exists for all members is essential to attaining and maintaining a high state of morale, discipline, readiness, and military effectiveness. Command Managed Equal Opportunity (CMEO) is the commander's tool for prevention of discrimination and for ensuring EO goals are attained.

b. Responsibilities

Command monitoring of internal practices, as well as awareness of the EO climate in the civilian community (as applicable), enables the Commander, Commanding Officer, Officer-in-Charge, or Supervisor, takes prompt positive action to counter discrimination or other inappropriate practices. Education to promote an understanding of cultural and ethnic differences and to prevent sexual harassment is a command responsibility.

Commanders must establish, promote, and issue EO policy. EO must be emphasized at top leadership levels, to include training of all assigned personnel in its precepts and holding individuals accountable for compliance. Command assessments and related Plans of Actions and Milestones shall be turnover items for change of command. New Commanders are responsible for conducting an EO assessment within six months of taking command. The following areas are of particular importance:

- *Discipline/Military Justice:* Commanders are responsible for ensuring equal justice for all personnel. They shall continually review the disposition of all charges to ensure that racial, religious, ethnic, or gender bias have not been factors in any phase of the process. Where disproportionate numbers of any group receiving disciplinary action are noted, the commander shall review such statistics and attempt to ascertain if the disproportionate numbers are caused by institutional or individual biases and take action to remove such causes as required.
- *Complaint of Discrimination and Sexual Harassment:* Commanders are responsible for ensuring that all individuals know about their right to submit an informal or formal complaint, the methods for submission, and the entitlement to obtain legal military counsel. Informal procedures include review of the circumstances by the immediate supervisor, as well as Commander's Request Mast if resolution is not reached at a lower level of in the chain of command. Commanders will ensure that personnel know about command and shore based assistance available to those who need help in processing discrimination/sexual harassment complaints. This assistance includes access to legal counsel, Equal Opportunity Assistants, the Navy

Equal Opportunity/Sexual Harassment Advice Line, and the Navy Inspector General's Fraud, Waste, and Abuse Hotline.

- *Assignment/Training/Promotion/Advancement:* Commanders must ensure personnel are assigned to jobs and special programs based on qualifications, performance, and potential. In doing so, commanders shall ensure assignment of the right person to the right job without restriction based on institutional biases and/or cultural or other stereotypes. Commanders shall ensure EO in training and advancement. The commander's personal attention to this issue is key to preventing discrimination.
- *Performance Evaluations and Fitness Reports:* One of the most important responsibilities of a commander is the evaluation of personnel. Evaluations, fitness reports and the counseling attendant to them, not only recognize job performance and point out areas for improvement, but also form the basis for future promotion and assignment. Evaluations and fitness reports, therefore, must be based on strictly on demonstrated performance.
- *Awards:* Recognition for personnel accomplishment is a motivating performance and retention factor for all Navy personnel. This builds and strengthens the Navy by retaining the skills of experienced personnel. The presentation of awards shall be monitored.
- *Enforcement of Command EO Policy:* Any person who has committed an act of discrimination is subject to disciplinary action. Appropriate disciplinary actions are an effective discrimination (e.g., racism, sexism) prevention measure. The EO program can succeed only if discrimination is eradicated through identification, evaluation, and correction of harmful practices. Counseling, administrative and disciplinary actions when counseling is ineffective and the record keeping of EO issues are available actions to the commander.
- *Shore Duties:* Shore commanders have an expanded EO role because of increased numbers of civilian, and military personnel and their responsibilities associated with service facilities, housing, and the civilian community. Provisions will be made to assist personnel in resolving discrimination (including sexual harassment) issues. Commanders at overseas bases will also take positive action to eliminate discrimination/sexual harassment involving Navy personnel, sponsored dependents, civilians, and host nationals on their bases.
- *Service Facilities:* Commanders shall ensure that service facilities are operated in a nondiscriminatory manner.
- *Cooperation with Local Organizations:* Commanders shall cooperate with civilian groups to develop good base/community relations consistent with Navy EO policy.
- *Public Affairs:* Commanders shall ensure that the public affairs programs of their organizations reflect the Navy's commitment to EO. [Ibid.]

CMEO is the commander's responsibility. Basic elements of the program listed below are required for implementation. Commanders must ensure that:

- A CMEO officer, Command Assessment Team (CAT) and Command Training Team (CTT) are properly appointed and trained.
- The CAT meets quarterly (at a minimum).
- Command assessment Plans of Action and Milestones (POA&Ms) are reviewed annually by higher authorities as required and retained for 36 months.
- Command personnel are kept informed of plans of action to correct problem areas, and the milestones achieved.
- Command personnel are routinely informed of the status of POA&Ms resulting from the annual command assessment.
- All complaints of discrimination, including sexual harassment, are completely investigated and resolved.
- All complaints, incident reports, and other statistical data and information as may be required are promptly submitted.
- Initial and annual command assessments shall include all command military personnel, including students and temporary duty personnel assigned at the time of the assessment. Civilian personnel assigned shall be encouraged to participate in the assessment.
- Ensure that CTT conducts Navy Rights and Responsibilities Training for all personnel within 90 days of check-in and annual refreshers in conjunction with the command assessment. [Ibid.]

EO issues outside the scope of responsibility of tenant commanders shall be shared with the installation host Commander. This does not relieve individual commanders of responsibility for determining that EO issues exist within their commands and taking action to work with the responsible shore Commanders to ensure proper resolution. [Ibid.]

Commanders who are Immediate Superiors in Commands have the additional responsibility of ensuring that subordinates properly emphasize, prioritize, and

implement CMEQ. The Equal Opportunity Assistant, if assigned, will provide assistance in oversight functions and in training, if there are program deficiencies. [Ibid.]

3. Assignment of Women Members in the Department of Navy

The following policy, [Ref. 53], on Assignment of Women Members in the Department of Navy (DoN) prescribes the guidelines under which women, both officer and enlisted, in the Navy and Marine Corps may be assigned to duty in ships, aircraft, and units of the Navy and Marine Corps.

a. Background

Public Law 103-160, section 541 repealed Title 10, United States Code Section 6015, the "combat exclusion law." This authorizes the Secretary of Defense (SECDEF) to change military personnel policy to assign women to any combat unit, classes of combat vessels, and combat platforms. Public Law 103-160, section 542 directed SECDEF to provide 30-day notification to Congress prior to implementing any changes that open units, classes of vessels, or types of platforms closed to women, and 90-day notification prior to any changes to the ground combat exclusion policy. Prior to repeal, women could be assigned to all combat logistic force, support, auxiliary, and special category ships.

SECDEF letter of 4 February 1994 notified Congress that any billets of the following were open to the assignment of women:

- All afloat staffs,
- All combat air squadrons,

- Aircraft carriers (CV/CVN),
- Cruisers (CG/CGN),
- Destroyers (DD/DDG),
- Frigates (FF/FFG),
- Amphibious warfare ships (LHA/LHD/LPH/LPD/LSD/LST),
- Mine countermeasure commands and control ships (MCS),
- All units of the Naval Construction Force. [Ibid.]

SECDEF letter of 13 January 1994 issued the direct ground combat exclusion policy, and directed the Secretary of the Navy (SECNAV) to designate which positions, units, and platforms meet direct ground combat criteria. This policy also authorized SECNAV to recommend restriction of the assignment of women where:

- The costs of appropriate berthing and privacy assignments are prohibitive,
- Units and positions are doctrinally required to physically collocate and remain with direct combat units,
- Units engaged in long-range reconnaissance operations and Special Operations Forces missions,
- And/or job-related physical requirements would necessarily exclude the vast majority of women service-members. [Ibid.]

SECDEF letter of 13 January 1994 states that Services will use this guidance to expand opportunities for women. No units or positions previously open to women will be closed under these instructions. [Ibid.]

b. Definitions

Direct Ground Combat Rule: Service-members are eligible to be assigned to all positions for which they are qualified, except that women shall be excluded from

assignments to units below the brigade level whose primary mission is to engage in direct combat on the ground, as defined below. [Ibid.]

Direct ground combat: Direct ground combat is engaging an enemy on the ground with individual or crew served weapons, while being exposed to hostile fire and to a high probability of direct physical contact with the hostile force's personnel. Direct ground combat take place well forward on the battlefield while locating and closing with enemy to defeat them by fire, maneuver, or shock effect. [Ibid.]

Temporary Duty: Temporary Duty (TEM DU) orders involve detachment from one station and assignment to another station or stations for TEM DU pending further assignment to a new permanent duty station or for return to the old permanent station. Members on TEM DU are not attached to any permanent duty station. [Ibid.]

Temporary Additional Duty: Temporary Additional Duty (TEM ADD) orders temporarily assign members to duty in addition to their present duties and direct them upon completion of this TEM ADD to resume regular or temporary duty. [Ibid.]

c. Policy

It is DoN policy that women, officers and enlisted, will be assigned to billets commensurate with their capabilities to the maximum extent practicable. The policy delineates when women may serve on board Navy ships, aircraft, and with Marine Corps units, but does not mandate assignment of women to any particular ship, aircraft, or Marine Corps unit. Accordingly, women:

- May be assigned to all afloat staffs, all combat air squadrons, and all surface ships that have been modified to allow appropriate berthing arrangements.

- May be assigned TEMDU or TEMADD to all squadrons and ships, and all units authorized for permanent assignment of women, without restriction.
- May be assigned TEMDU or TEMADD to units, closed to the assignment of women due to direct combat exclusion, that are not expected to conduct a combat mission during the period of temporary duty. If women are so assigned to a unit that is closed and the unit is subsequently assigned a combat mission, every reasonable effort will be made to remove the women prior to execution of such mission.
- May embark in any unit for official purposes not requiring TEMDU or TEMADD orders, such as for the performance of inspections, support functions, or visits.
- May not be assigned to sea-air-land (SEAL) teams, infantry regiments and below, artillery battalions and below, any armored units (tanks, amphibious assault vehicles, and light armored reconnaissance), riverine assault craft units, units and positions which are doctrinally required to physically collocate and remain with direct combat units that are closed to women, and units engaged in long-range reconnaissance operations and Special Operations Forces missions.
- May not be permanently assigned to currently designed classes of submarines, mine countermeasure ships (MCM), mine hunter coastal ships (MHC), and patrol crafts (PC) due to the prohibitive cost to modify these ships for appropriate berthing and privacy arrangements. [Ibid.]

The Chief of Naval Operations and Commandant of the Marine Corps shall develop and issue specific directives for assignment of women within the policy contained here. Assignment policies for women of the Navy and Marine Corps shall be: on the best interest of the naval service; in accordance with this policy; and consistent with the principles of fairness and equal opportunity. [Ibid.]

4. Department of the Navy Policy on Pregnancy

The following, Department of the Navy Policy on Pregnancy, provides a DoN policy for all military personnel on pregnancy and issues related to pregnant service women that will build positively on existing programs in the Navy and Marine Corps to

ensure equality of opportunity while maintaining operational readiness [Ref. 54]. This policy applies to all DoN personnel, both Regular and Reserve, except midshipmen. The policy expands the requirements for education and training, establishes a requirement for the collection of objective data, and analysis of information for use in evaluation of DoN pregnancy policies, and helps guide the department's future efforts in this area.

a. Background

The mission of the DoN requires the highest level of operational readiness to meet the nation's strategic goals. A full complement of highly trained personnel is essential to maintaining operational readiness in deployable units.

Women are fully participating members of the Navy-Marine Corps Team. DoN leadership recognizes that pregnancy is a natural event that can occur in the lives of Navy and Marine Corps servicewomen, and is not a presumption of medical incapability. However, pregnancy could affect a command's operational readiness by temporarily limiting a servicewomen's ability and availability to perform all assigned tasks. Consideration of the reality requires establishment of policies and procedures, which accords due regard to the demands of parenting in the Service and address career and health issues. [Ibid.]

b. Policy

Details of the DoN pregnancy policy are as follows:

- Pregnancy and parenthood are compatible with a naval career. The DoN will ensure the health needs of pregnant servicewomen are met and will

accommodate the career and welfare need of pregnant servicewomen to the greatest extent possible, consistent with the needs of the naval service.

- Military responsibilities, including the expeditionary nature of our Navy and Marine Corps, often add factors for serious consideration for our servicemen and servicewomen. Appropriate and thorough family planning information will be made to our servicemen and servicewomen throughout our training establishment and at the unit level. Our goal is to ensure all personnel are aware of the broad range of medical, legal, financial, chaplain and other services available to assist and encourage our men and women in making family planning decisions that are supportive of both their naval service and their parental responsibilities.
- Advice concerning personal decisions, including issues of faith, character, parental responsibilities, individual core values, and medical concerns, will be readily available to those who seek it. Services will provide detailed guidance for the assignment and management of pregnant servicewomen.
- A servicewomen who is transferred from her unit because of pregnancy will be returned to the same billet, or an equivalent billet in a command of the same type duty, whenever possible to the same command, following her pregnancy and any related convalescent leave and period of deferment.
- A servicewomen who suspects she is pregnant is responsible for promptly confirming her pregnancy through testing by an appropriate medical provider and informing her commanding officer of confirmation.
- Regarding the requirement for appropriate housing for pregnant servicewomen, a pregnant active duty servicewomen with no family members may reside in Bachelor Quarters for her full term. If the servicewomen requests, the host commander may authorize a pregnant servicewomen to occupy off-base housing and be paid a basic allowance for quarters (BAQ) up to her twentieth week of pregnancy. From the twentieth week forward, the host commander must approve such a request. The DoD Housing Management Manual outlines the policy for application to government family housing. Payment of BAQ will be in accordance with applicable pay and entitlement regulations.
- Active duty servicewomen will be given priority in receiving routine obstetric/gynecologic (OB/GYN) care in all DoN medical facilities. Further, it is DoN policy that active duty servicewomen assigned to imminently deploying units or positions (within three months) will be given priority over other active duty servicewomen receiving routine OB/GYN care in all DoN military Medical Treatment Facilities (MTFs). Under Chapter 55 of United States Code, Title 10, active duty service-members have statutory entitlement to care in medical facilities of the uniformed services. Such care is authorized for other categories of beneficiaries on a space available basis.
- Medical limitations and/or assignment restrictions, or periods of absence because of pregnancy or associated medical care shall not be the basis for

downgrading marks or adverse comments. As always, evaluations and fitness reports shall be based on demonstrated performance.

- A pregnant servicewomen may request separation from active duty. Requests for separation will not normally be approved unless there are extenuating circumstances or the request otherwise complies with criteria for separation promulgated by the services.
- The chain of command shall ensure that service-members will be afforded the opportunity to take advantage of available training and legal assistance for advice regarding their options in establishing paternity. [Ibid.]

c. Responsibility

The Chief Naval Operations (CNO) and Commandant of Marine Corps (CMC) shall provide a report within one year of the issuance of this policy and biennially thereafter providing:

- Service analyses concerning the effect of pregnancy and other medical, administrative, and disciplinary factors on deployability of servicewomen.
- Assessment of health care risks with pregnancy and other types of medical conditions that may exist for servicewomen and servicemen assigned to operational/deployable commands and support commands with significant occupational health considerations (e.g., ship and airplane construction/repair facilities etc).
- Assessment of the training provided to officers and enlisted personnel to achieve the goals.
- Assessment of the impact of policy and actions ensuring priority for routine OB/GYN care for active duty servicewomen and, within that category, first priority for servicewomen assigned to imminently deploying units or positions.
- Assessment of the worldwide availability of and access to appropriately staffed and equipped military OB/GYN medical support. This assessment should include the possible impacts of mobilization and assignment of pregnant reserve service-members to stations within the continental United States. [Ibid.]

5. Policy on Management of Pregnant Servicewomen

The policy, [Ref. 55], provides administrative guidance for the management of pregnant servicewomen, and promotes uniformity in the medical-administrative management of normal pregnancies. Responsibilities delegated in the policy are described as follows:

a. Servicewoman's Commanding Officer

After a pregnancy diagnosis is made and confirmed by a military MTF (or civilian health care provider in cases of inaccessibility to military MTFs), a servicewoman's commanding officer must assure that the servicewoman retains a high degree of commitment to fulfill professional responsibilities. No preferential treatment shall be given because of pregnancy status. Specific limitations for the pregnant servicewoman are provided in this policy, however, additional limitations will require the judgement of the Commanding Officer, in consultation with the health care provider and the occupational health professional. Commanding Officers' responsibilities are as follows:

(1) Counseling: The provisions of this policy are brought to the attention of any servicewoman desiring to serve in the naval service while pregnant in order that possible conflicts between the role of maintaining the Navy's posture of readiness and mobility and the role of parenthood are fully understood. The servicewomen should be provided counseling once the pregnancy has been confirmed. Counselors will discuss military entitlements to maternity care while active duty. The Commanding Officer should explain Navy policy on worldwide assignability, which requires certain service-members

to sign for family care program. Pregnant servicewomen ordered to overseas duty should be counseled concerning the decision to command sponsor/non-command sponsor their dependent per MILPERSMAN Article 1810550.

Servicewomen should be advised that requests for separation may be approved. In those cases where extenuating circumstances exist, requests for separation should be submitted with adequate lead time (prior to the 20th week of pregnancy) to allow appropriate separation dates. Pregnant servicewomen requesting separation will be counseled on the limited medical benefits available after separation. Command counseling must be documented and recorded by service record entries. [Ibid.]

(2) Work Reassignment: The commanding officer, with the health care provider, and the cognizant occupational health professional, shall determine if any environmental hazards or toxins exist that may require work reassignment of the servicewomen, within the command, for the duration of the pregnancy. In cases where symptoms such as sudden lightheadedness, dizziness, nausea, easy fatiguability, or loss of consciousness may impair performance, the servicewomen shall not be assigned to duties where she is a hazard to herself or others. Diving duty is hazardous and carries an increased hyperbaric risk to the fetus; therefore, diving during pregnancy is prohibited. If there is a question regarding assignment in these cases, the health care provider should be consulted. [Ibid.]

(3) General Limitations: The pregnant servicewomen shall be exempt from:

- The regular physical training (PT) program of her unit. However, she shall be counseled and encouraged to participate in an approved American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (ACOG) exercise program, unless exempted by her health care provider for medical reasons. ACOG exercise program shall be made available through each military treatment facility providing prenatal care.

- Physical readiness testing (PRT) during pregnancy and for six months following delivery.
- Exposure to chemical or toxic agents and/or environmental hazards that are determined unsafe by the cognizant occupational health professional or the health care provider.
- Standing at parade rest or attention for longer than 15 minutes.
- All routine immunizations except tetanus-diphtheria unless clinically indicated.
- Participation in weapons training, swimming qualifications, drown-proofing, and any other physical training requirements that may affect the health of the servicewomen and/or the fetus.
- May be allowed to work shifts.
- May be exposed to radio frequency (RF) radiation 300 MHz and up to the same limits allowed in the non-pregnant state. The current limits allow for a whole-body Specific Absorption Rate (SAR) not to exceed 0.4 W/kg when averaged over any six-minute period or a field strength measurement of 1mW/cm².
- May be exposed to ionizing radiation, but these exposures should be as limited as possible. The exposure should not exceed 0.5 rem (0.005 Sievert) during the entire gestation. Efforts should be made to avoid substantial variation above the uniform monthly exposure rate that would satisfy this limiting value. [Ibid.]

(4) Specific Limitations: During the last three months of pregnancy (28 weeks and beyond) the servicewomen shall be:

- Allowed resting 20 minutes every four hours (sitting in a chair with feet up acceptable).
- Limited to a forty-hour workweek. The forty hours may be distributed among any seven-day period, but hours are defined by presence at servicewomen's duty station, and not by type of work performed. Pregnancy does not remove a servicewoman from watchstanding responsibilities, but all hours count as part of the forty hour per week limitation. In instances where the unit work week and/or watchstanding requirements exceed forty hours, the commanding officer, in consultation with the occupational health professional or the health care provider must be informed and approve, on a case-by-case basis, extension of the servicewoman's work week beyond forty hours. The servicewoman may request a work waiver to extend her hours beyond the stated forty-hour week, if she is physically capable and her attending physician concurs. [Ibid.]

(5) Medical Considerations of Work Assignment and Training: The Commanding Officer, in consultation with the occupational health professional or the health care provider (where appropriate), must determine whether or not the servicewomen requires a work reassignment. This may include complete reassignment to a different work environment or restriction(s) from performing specific types of tasks.

In an uncomplicated pregnancy of a physically fit, trained servicewomen, working in a safe environment, there is probably little need for restriction of duty.

Restrictions for pregnant servicewomen are:

- *Medical*: High blood pressure, bleeding, multiple pregnancy, or other indications as identified by the servicewoman's health care provider.
- *Environmental*: Exposure to known toxins or hazardous conditions as determined by the appropriate occupational health professional.
- *Ergonomic*: Instances where there may be no obvious medical contradictions but where the individual's physical configuration and/or abilities preclude her from continuing with specific activities (such as lying in a prone position for weapons qualifications, diving duty, certain duty aboard ships, etc.) or where nausea or fatigability would be hazardous to the servicewomen, the unborn child, and the other service-members of the unit (e.g., air controller duties).
- *Other*: Areas of questionably harmful effects such as nuclear, biological, and chemical (NBC) training, a regular unit physical training program, certain unit qualification tests or hand-on elements of skills qualification tests, potentially harmful environmental conditions, etc. [Ibid.]

(6) Administration: Bureau of Personnel (BUPERS) shall limit overseas assignment of pregnant servicewomen as feasible, consistent with manning and readiness considerations. No servicewomen may be assigned overseas or to travel overseas after the beginning of the 28th week of pregnancy. Suitability screening for overseas duty, if properly conducted under procedures outlined Transfer Manual (TRANSMAN), assures

that the assignment and transfer of pregnant servicewomen, officer, and enlisted, conform with the following guidelines:

- Servicewomen assigned to duty ashore in the 48 contiguous states, who are otherwise eligible for duty Outside Continental United States (OCONUS), and have not reached their 28th week of pregnancy, may be assigned for duty at an overseas installation except when any of the following conditions exist:
- Adequate civilian/military medical facilities with obstetrical capabilities (meeting or equivalent to ACOG guidelines to provide care as required) are not available.
- Servicewoman intends to place infant for adoption. In these cases the servicewoman will not be eligible for overseas/isolated duty until six months post-delivery.
- Base or alternate civilian housing is not available.
- Servicewomen may be assigned in CONUS without restriction provided they do not have to fly after 28th week of pregnancy. They will not be transferred to units that are deploying during the period from the 20th week of pregnancy through four months after the servicewoman's expected date of delivery.
- The commanding officer in consultation with the appropriate occupational health professional or the health care provider shall decide whether the individual may safely continue in her shipboard assigned duties. This decision will be based on the servicewoman's condition and environmental toxins or hazards within the individual's workplace.
- A pregnant servicewoman shall not remain aboard ship if the time for medical evacuation of the member to a treatment facility capable of evaluating and stabilizing obstetric emergencies is greater than three hours.
- For enlisted servicewomen, commanding officers shall ensure that the enlisted availability report includes the date the pregnant servicewoman will be in her 20th week of pregnancy, and in the case of deploying units, the date of deployment. The servicewoman shall not remain on board beyond her 20th week of pregnancy.
- Shipboard assignments are deferred up to a period of four months following delivery unless the servicewoman volunteers (waivers) for an early rotation. This time is meant to allow the delivered servicewoman time to regain her physical strength and stamina in order to perform the duties of her rate/rank. This does not preclude the stated six-month waiver from physical readiness test participation.
- Pregnancy is considered disqualifying for designated flight status personnel including air-controllers; however, waivers may be requested up to the

beginning of the third trimester. Flight personnel may be waived to transport, maritime, or helicopter type aircraft with a cabin altitude less than 10,000 feet.

- Air-controllers may work up to the 28th week of pregnancy. From the 28th week and beyond, they may work in an administrative capacity only. Additionally, due to the building constrains that hamper medical evacuation, pregnant air-controllers will normally be restricted from tower duties after their 27th week of pregnancy.
- Servicewomen, who became pregnant while assigned to sea duty aviation squadrons due for deployment, should be reassigned to a squadron not scheduled for deployment from the 20th week of pregnancy through recuperative period.
- Servicewomen, who are pregnant at the time of transfer, will not be assigned to mandatory unaccompanied overseas duty stations, geographic locations that require the use of quarters, nor areas that have inadequate OB/GYN facilities. Pregnant servicewomen will be deferred from overseas duty if they are in an advanced stage of pregnancy (greater than 28 weeks).
- Pregnant servicewomen stationed at an overseas duty station with adequate OB/GYN care and available housing (government or community) will remain at their current duty station. Pregnant servicewomen stationed at an overseas duty station without available housing (government or community) or adequate OB/GYN care, and will be reassigned prior to their 20th week of pregnancy.
- The pregnant servicewoman will not be assigned to a school if her projected delivery date or recuperative period will occur during the course of instruction.
- If a servicewoman becomes pregnant during training, the commanding officer of the training command will determine if she can complete her training. If possible, training will be terminated at a point where it will be academically feasible to reenter the training at a later date without repeating previously completed portions of training. Based on this information and the projected delivery date, the commanding officer of the training command will determine the disenrollment date.
- If disenrolled, the pregnant servicewomen will be returned to her parent command until fully recovered. If under Permanent Change of Station orders, final disposition will be determined by BUPERS.
- After returning to full duty, a servicewoman disenrolled for pregnancy will be afforded the opportunity to complete her training, consistent with manning and readiness conditions. Commander, Naval Education and Training will determine if enrolment will be necessary for the entire course of instruction or only for the portion lost as a result of disenrollment for pregnancy. [Ibid.]

(7) Waivers: A waiver procedure has been established for use in unique circumstances. A servicewoman's Commanding Officer, if the circumstances warrant, may request a waiver on behalf of a servicewoman. [Ibid.]

(8) Conduct and Discipline: Pregnant servicewomen have the same rights and responsibilities and are subject to the same administrative and disciplinary actions same as all members of the services. An active duty servicewoman under court-martial charges or sentence of court-martial, who is certified by a military treatment facility physician as pregnant, may be discharged only with the written consent of the officer exercising general court-martial jurisdiction over her. [Ibid.]

(9) Performance Evaluation: Commanding officers shall ensure that pregnant servicewoman are not adversely evaluated or receive adverse fitness reports- as a consequence of pregnancy. Weight standards exceeded during pregnancy are not cause for adverse fitness reports or evaluations. Pregnant servicewomen and those who have recently delivered, who are otherwise fully qualified for reenlistment, but who exceed acceptable weight standards will be extended for the maximum of up to six months after delivery. [Ibid.]

(10) Uniform: The proper wearing of the uniform during pregnancy is the concern and responsibility of the servicewoman and shall be addressed by the unit Commanding Officer. The maternity uniform is mandatory for all pregnant servicewomen in the Navy when a uniform is prescribed and regular uniforms no longer fit. This uniform, when worn, shall be labeled as a certified authorized naval garment and, as such, is the only style permitted to be worn with other naval accouterments. The outergarments (sweater,

raincoat, overcoat, peacoat, and reefer) may be worn unbuttoned when the garment may no longer fits when properly buttoned. [Ibid.]

(11) Evacuation of Pregnant Servicewomen: If noncombatant evacuation is ordered, all pregnant servicewomen who have reached the 20th week of pregnancy will be evacuated as noncombatants. This also applies to other pregnant servicewomen, on an individual basis, assigned to an area from which noncombatants are evacuated. The following applies to pregnant servicewomen who have not reached the 20th week of pregnancy:

- The area Commander will make the decision to evacuate servicewomen in earlier than (less than 20 weeks) stages of pregnancy. Area commander will consult with available medical authority and base a decision on:
- Ability of the pregnant servicewomen to perform in her specialty.
- Capability of field medical (or other support unit) to provide emergency obstetrical care.
- Requirement for the servicewoman's duties.
- Nearness of the hostilities.
- Welfare of the unborn child.
- Medical evacuation methods will not be used for pregnant servicewomen unless directed by a medical officer.
- Pregnant servicewomen evacuated will be reported to and reassigned by BUPERS. [Ibid.]

(12) Convalescent Leave: Post delivery convalescent leave of six weeks (42 days) will normally be granted by the servicewoman's commanding officer under the following:

- The servicewoman's commanding officer (upon advice of the attending physician), Commanding Officers of the medical treatment facility, or Office of Medical Affairs (OMA) (for persons hospitalized in civilian facilities within their respective areas of authority), may grant convalescent leave to naval servicewomen following delivery provided:

- Such convalescent leave is limited to a maximum of 42 days following any uncomplicated vaginal delivery or cesarean section.
- The servicewoman is not awaiting disciplinary action or separation from the service for medical or administrative reasons.
- The medical officer in charge certifies that the patient is not fit for duty, will not need hospital treatment during the contemplated leave period, and that such leave will not delay the final disposition of the patient.
- When considered necessary by the attending physician and approved on an individual basis by the commander of the respective geographic naval medical command, convalescent leave in excess of 42 days may be granted. Due to the time involved, this individual approval authority may not be redelegated to hospital commanding officers. The servicewoman's permanent command must be notified of such extensions. [Ibid.]

(13) Breast-feeding: Servicewomen wishing to breast-feed their infants may do so during times allotted for breaks or meals. Breast-feeding is not a reason for granting excessive time for meals or from work. Requests to breast-feed infants during duty hours should be handled on a case-by-case basis. [Ibid.]

b. Servicewoman

(1) Responsibility: The individual servicewoman is responsible for:

- Planning her pregnancy to allow her to meet both her family and military obligation.
- Seeking confirmation of pregnancy at a MT facility.
- Notifying her commanding officer or officer in charge of her pregnancy.
- Performing her military duties within the limits established by her condition.
- Complying with worksite and task-related safety and health recommendations made by appropriate occupational health professionals, including the use of personal protective equipment. [Ibid.]

(2) Waiver Request: Requests for a waiver of pregnancy policy restrictions shall be promptly submitted to BUPERS for officers and rated enlisted personnel, or the

Enlisted Personnel Management Center (EPMAC). The appropriate BUPERS detailer will screen the request and make the final determination regarding assignment eligibility. A medical waiver request should contain all information required by BUPERS along with the following items:

- Narrative of condition including number of weeks of gestation, present condition, special treatment requirements, and any anticipated future requirements, and any anticipated future requirements other than normal delivery.
- Results of specialty consultation that include the medical officer's estimate of the servicewoman's ability to perform assigned duties, and when such duties should be terminated prior to the expected date of delivery.
- If the member is due to be stationed overseas, determination of the available medical care must be evaluated. This includes the facility's ability to treat the servicewoman for prenatal care, delivery, and postnatal care for servicewoman and infant. [Ibid.]

(3) Obstetrical Care: When pregnant servicewomen remain at their stations, maternity care will be provided at the MT facility designated, provided it has OB/GYN capability and the servicewoman resides in the facility's inpatient area. If that MT facility does not OB/GYN capability serving her residence area, she may choose to deliver in a civilian hospital closer to her residence, or travel to the nearest or most accessible MT facility for delivery. Upon discharge from either the military or civilian inpatient facility following delivery, the servicewoman will be granted convalescent leave based on specific indications.

If a servicewoman requests leave to return home (or other appropriate place) for the birth or other maternity care, and there is no military MTF serving the area of her leave address (or she does not intend to use the military MTF), the servicewoman

shall obtain authorization if the government is to assume financial responsibility for such care. [Ibid.]

(4) Infants Placed for Adoption: Initial guidance and assistance for placing infants for adoption can be obtained from the local Navy Legal Support Office and the local Family Service Center. Servicewomen intending to place their infants for adoption will meet with the appropriate legal counsel and placement agencies to ensure specific state requirements are followed. Pregnant servicewomen are not eligible for OUTCONUS assignments until delivery and adoption requirements are completed. [Ibid.]

(5) Convalescent Leave: A period of authorized absence granted for an active duty servicewoman under medical care and not fit for duty may be granted by the servicewoman's Commanding Officer or the hospital's Commanding Officer following delivery. The length of convalescent leave will normally be 42 days following an uncomplicated vaginal delivery or cesarean section. The servicewoman may terminate such leave early with the attending physician's approval and making provisions for adequate child-care. [Ibid.]

c. *Health Care Provider*

(1) Responsibility: Upon confirmation of pregnancy by a health care provider, written notification of the servicewoman's condition will be provided to the servicewoman's Commanding Officer. The health care provider must ensure the privacy of the servicewoman while at the same time safeguarding both her welfare and that of her unborn child.

When pregnancy is confirmed, there are many related matters, not strictly medical, about which the health care provider is called upon to aid in decision making. Each health care provider, with responsibility for pregnancy confirmation or prenatal care, should be familiar with the administrative and command requirements relating to pregnant servicewoman. The servicewoman's health care provider must provide timely guidance on work restrictions and the most effective job utilization of the pregnant servicewoman without undue stress to her or her unborn child. Additionally, the health care provider must monitor the health of the servicewoman to determine if additional convalescent leave is warranted.

Article 3810170 of Military Personnel Manual provides for placement of pregnant servicewomen in a light duty status with subsequent assignment to sick in quarters status (here designated as Quarters-OB) prior to hospitalization for delivery. Accordingly, light duty may be recommended to a pregnant servicewoman's Commanding Officer any time a health care provider determines that it is needed. Unless prescribed by the attending medical officer earlier in the pregnancy due to other than normal circumstances, pregnant servicewoman are usually placed in a light duty status between the 36th and the 38th weeks of pregnancy. Additionally, light duty may be prescribed for a maximum of two weeks for those servicewomen having completed convalescent leave, who are ready to report to the command, but can only work part time. [Ibid.]

(2) Problem Pregnancies: Some pregnant servicewomen will require significant amounts of time away from the work environment; e.g., past history of multi-problem pregnancy, bleeding or threatened abortions. In these instances, it is not unusual

for the attending health care provider to order the servicewoman to bed-rest for extended periods, or until delivery. The loss of such a servicewoman may adversely impact the command. In these instances the following disposition alternatives may be utilized:

- **Quarters-OB:** Pregnant servicewomen requiring extended bed-rest who reside outside the barracks and who must be seen by their attending health care provider at least weekly may be placed in a Quarters-OB status at home. The attending health care provider must specifically certify that Quarters-OB is prescribed. A pregnant servicewoman will not be placed in a Quarters-OB status solely on the basis of her pregnancy, i.e., no complications or extenuating circumstances. The medical condition of the patient must dictate the length of time the patient should be allowed to remain in a Quarters-OB status. Accordingly, the normal 72-hour time limit for sick in quarters patients is waived for Quarters-OB patients. Granting this status should be reserved for those instances when, in the opinion of the health care provider responsible for providing prenatal care:
 - The servicewoman has become disabled.
 - There are complications present that would preclude any type of duty responsibilities and delivery is imminent.
 - There are complications or conditions caused by, or directly related to the pregnancy (e.g., excessive vomiting, hypertension, or multiple pregnancy), although not precluding all duty responsibilities, could not potentially lead to adverse obstetrical outcome if the member was in a duty status.
- **Medical Holding Company:** This may be utilized for those requiring extraordinary time in a Quarters-OB status. Placement as TEMDU in a medical holding company by a MT facility with an affiliated Medical Holding Company enables the parent command to gain relief for the loss of the servicewoman. Placement in this status should be Done in consultation with the servicewoman's command. Once admitted to a medical holding company, the servicewoman should be assigned duties commensurate with the physical limitations directed by her attending health care provider.
- **Admission to an MT Facility:** In those instances deemed appropriate and in keeping with utilization review standards, a servicewoman living in the barracks who requires extended bed-rest may be admitted to an MT facility.
- **Limited Duty Board:** Some servicewomen may require a significant alteration in work assignment, which may adversely impact the command. A limited duty board allows the command to gain a replacement. [Ibid.]

(3) Hospitalization: When it becomes necessary to hospitalize a pregnant servicewoman, because of complications or the onset of labor, the military MTF Commanding Officer will notify the service-member's commanding officer, citing the medical indication on which the decision is based. [Ibid.]

(4) Postnatal Care: Since all pregnancy terminations do not require the same length of time before the servicewoman can resume her duties, the physician providing postnatal care may place a servicewoman sick in quarters when neither light duty, hospitalization, nor convalescent leave is indicated and the servicewoman may be capable of returning to full duty within, at most, a 72-hour period. Article 3020380 of Military Personnel Manual states that a servicewoman is in this status when excused from duty for treatment or medically directed self-treatment. The servicewoman may be in home, barracks, or other non-hospital facilities (hotel, motel, occupying beds in dispensaries, etc.). At the discretion of the attending medical officer, such servicewomen may be placed sick in quarters after return to duty the same as any other servicewoman. The fact that she may have recently returned from convalescent leave shall not be cause for refusal to place a servicewoman sick in quarters. [Ibid.]

(5) Termination of Pregnancy: DoD funds are not available for the elective termination of pregnancy except where the life of mother would be endangered if the fetus were carried to term. This limitation does not apply to medical procedures necessary for the termination of an ectopic pregnancy.

When available and adequate, civilian facilities will be used at the servicewoman's own expense. Except when a servicewoman must be admitted, ordinary leave will be granted in order to have the procedure accomplished. Any subsequent

treatment or hospitalization required as a result of an abortion at a civilian facility will be managed as any other illness or disability. [Ibid.]

(6) Pregnant Brig Prisoners: The care and management of pregnant servicewomen prisoners confined to a brig shall conform to the requirements of this policy except that convalescent leave cannot be authorized. Pregnancy per se does not preclude confinement in a brig as long as appropriate prenatal care is provided and there is a medical treatment facility near the brig that can provide for labor, delivery, and the management of obstetric emergencies. [Ibid.]

d. Occupational Health Professional

The cognizant health professional is responsible for providing consultation to Commanding Officers to assist them in fulfilling their professional responsibilities to provide a safe and healthy workplace. This may include recommendations to guard the health of pregnant servicewomen and their unborn child. Depending on the circumstances and information required, the appropriate occupational health professional may be: an occupational physician, industrial hygienist, occupational health nurse, audiologist, radiation health officer, toxicologist, or environmental health officer.

On-site occupational health consultation is provided by the supporting Commander, Naval Medical Command MTFs. Additional support is available from the Navy Geographic Commands, the Navy Environmental Health Center, or the Navy Environmental and Preventive Medicine Units. [Ibid.]

6. Navy Abortion Policy

Navy Abortion Policy, [Ref. 56], defines the guidelines regarding abortions in Navy MTFs.

a. Policy

Performing abortion in naval MTFs is not authorized except where the life of mother would be endangered, if the fetus were carried to term. Performing elective abortions in naval MTFs paid for the patient is not authorized.

Physicians, who perform abortions in naval MTFs, must verify the procedure is necessary because the life of the mother would be endangered if the fetus were carried to term. Certification of medical need must be completed by the attending physician and must also be signed by either the Chief of Service, Chief of the Professional Staff, or the hospital Commanding Officer or designated agent. Certification must be accomplished prior to the initiation of the procedure using either Progress Notes for inpatient care, or the Chronological Record of Medical Care for outpatient care. The original must be held in the patient's chart and a copy maintained by the Commanding Officer of the facility performing the abortion.

When Federal funds are used for abortions performed in a civilian health facility to cover either all, or part, of the procedure a claim must have a statement signed by the physician of record and the department head or OB/GYN consultant at that facility that the procedure will be or was performed because the life of the mother would have been endangered, if the fetus had been carried to term. This claim and statement must be

presented to the Commanding Officer of the command responsible for adjudicating the invoice prior to the procedure, if medically feasible.

Military MTFs in foreign countries will follow the criteria of the above policy, except the MTF with respect the host nation's laws and may not perform an abortion that will violate local laws. Further, abortions will not be performed in foreign countries where the United States has concluded an international agreement that imposes more restrictive criteria. In such situations, medical evacuation to another military MTF, or disengagement to a civilian facility, where the abortion could be performed, is authorized. [Ibid.]

b. Informed Consent and Counseling

Informed consent for surgical services is based on the general principles of consent for all medical and dental treatment. If competent to make healthcare decisions, the patient alone has the authority to consent. Legal capacity to consent will normally be determined by the law of the state in which the facility is located.

Counseling patients prior to the procedure shall be applied, if medically feasible. Counseling will include patient diagnosis, description of the procedure in lay terms, risks and complications associated with the procedure in lay terms, alternate treatment modalities in lay terms, and religious and psychological counseling as desired by the patient or as deemed necessary by the healthcare team.

Preoperative counseling should allow the patient sufficient time to consider her decision. In nonemergency cases, counseling must be provided no less than

24-hours prior to the procedure or as directed by local state requirements. Emergency cases are exempt from this time requirement. [Ibid.]

7. Navy Fraternization Policy

Navy Fraternization Policy defines guidelines for personal relationships between officers and enlisted members, between officers, or between enlisted members of different rank or grade [Ref. 57]. The policy is as follows:

a. Background

Navy has historically relied upon custom and tradition to define the bounds of acceptable personal relationships among its members. Proper social interaction among officer and enlisted members has always been encouraged, as it enhances unit morale and esprit de corps. At the same time, unduly familiar personal relationships between officers and enlisted members have traditionally been contrary to naval custom, because they undermine the respect for authority, which is essential to Navy's ability to accomplish its military mission. Over 200 years of seagoing experience have demonstrated that seniors must maintain thoroughly professional relationships with juniors at all times. This custom recognizes the need to prevent use of a senior grade or position in such a way that it results in favoritism, preferential treatment, personal gain, or involves actions that otherwise may reasonably be expected to undermine good order, discipline, authority, or high unit morale. In like manner, custom requires that junior personnel recognize and respect the authority inherent in a senior's grade, rank, or position. This recognition of authority is evidenced by observance of the military

courtesies and customs that have traditionally defined proper senior-subordinate relationships.

“Fraternization” is the term traditionally used to identify personal relationships that contravene the customary bounds of acceptable senior-subordinate relationship. Although it has most commonly been applied to officer-enlisted relationships, fraternization also includes improper relationships and social interaction between officer members, as well as, between enlisted members of different ranks and/or positions of responsibility.

Historically, and as used in this policy, fraternization is a gender-neutral concept. Its focus is on the detriment to good order and discipline resulting from the erosion of respect for authority inherent in an unduly familiar senior-subordinate relationship, not the gender of the members involved. In this sense, fraternization is a uniquely military concept, although abuse of a senior’s position for personal gain and actual or perceived preferential treatment are leadership and management problems that also arise in civilian organizations. [Ibid.]

b. Policy

Personal relationships between officer and enlisted members that are “unduly” familiar, and do not respect differences in rank and grade, are prohibited and violate long-standing custom and tradition of the naval service. Similar relationships that are unduly familiar between officers or between enlisted members of different rank or grade may also be prejudicial to good order and discipline, or of a nature to bring discredit on the naval service, and are prohibited. Commands are expected to take

administrative and disciplinary action as necessary to correct such inappropriate behavior. This policy and the prohibition of fraternization found in Article 1165 of United States Navy Regulations, 1990 are lawful general orders effective without further implementation. Violation of this policy or Article 1165 subjects the involved members to disciplinary action under Uniform Code of Military Justice (UCMJ). [Ibid.]

c. Prohibited Relationships and Discussion

Personal relationships between officer and enlisted members that are unduly familiar and that do not respect differences in grade or rank are prohibited. Such relationships are prejudicial to good order and discipline and violate long-standing traditions of naval service. Prejudice to good order and discipline or discredit to the naval service may result from, but are not limited to circumstances that:

- Call into question a senior's objectivity;
- Result in actual or apparent preferential treatment;
- Undermine the authority of a senior; or
- Compromise the chain of command.

It is impossible to set forth every act that may be prejudicial to good order and discipline or that is service discrediting, because surrounding circumstances often determine whether the conduct in question is inappropriate or not. Proper social interactions and appropriate personal relationships are an important part of unit morale and esprit de corps. However, dating, cohabitation, and intimate or sexual relations between officers and enlisted members are unduly familiar and are prohibited, as would be a private relationship between an officer and enlisted members.

Unduly familiar relationships may exist with individuals outside one's direct chain of command. By longstanding custom and tradition, Chief Petty Officers (E-7 to E-9) are separate and distinct leaders within their assigned command. Chief Petty Officers provide leadership, not just within their direct chain of command, but for the entire unit. Because of this unique leadership responsibility, relationships between Chief Petty Officers and junior personnel (E-1 to E-6) that are unduly familiar and that do not respect differences in grade or rank, are typically prejudicial to good order and discipline when within the same command.

Likewise, personal relationships that are unduly familiar between staff/student personnel within Navy training commands that do not respect differences in grade, rank, or the staff/student relationship are typically prejudicial to good order and discipline.

While the existence of a direct senior-subordinate supervisory relationship is not a prerequisite for a relationship between juniors and seniors to constitute fraternization, the fact that individuals are in the same chain of command increases the likelihood that an unduly familiar relationship between senior and junior officers or between senior and junior enlisted members will result in prejudice to good order and discipline or discredit to the naval service.

Conduct that constitutes fraternization is not excused nor mitigated by a subsequent legal marriage between the parties. Service members, who are married or otherwise related (father/son, etc.) to other service members, must maintain the requisite respect and decorum attending the official relationship while either is on duty, or in uniform in public. Compatible with sea/shore rotation policy and the needs of the service,

service-members married to each other, will not be assigned in the same chain of command.

Seniors throughout the chain of command will address gender offending conduct by taking appropriate action, to include counseling, issuing letters of instruction, comments on fitness reports, or annual performance evaluations, reassignment, and/or, if necessary, by taking appropriate disciplinary steps through the UCMJ.

The responsibility for preventing inappropriate chain of command relationships must rest primarily on the senior. While the senior party is expected to control and preclude the development of inappropriate relationships, this policy is applicable to both members and both are accountable for their own conduct. [Ibid.]

8. Department of Navy (DoN) Policy on Sexual Harassment

DoN Policy on Sexual Harassment provides a comprehensive policy for all military and civilian personnel on the identification, prevention, and elimination of sexual harassment and establishes regulations to enforce that policy. This policy applies to all DoN personnel, specifically: all active-duty personnel, both Regular and Reserve; all DoN civilians including non-appropriated fund employees; midshipmen of the Naval Academy and the Reserve Officer Training Corps; and Reserve personnel when performing active or inactive duty for training, or engaging in any activity directly related to the performance of DoD reserve duty or function. [Ref. 58]

a. Background

The economic cost of sexual harassment is significant. Even more harmful, however, are the negative effects on productivity and readiness, including increased absenteeism, greater personnel turnover, lower morale, decreased effectiveness, and a loss of personal, organizational, and public trust. While not easily quantified, these costs are real and seriously affect DoN's ability to accomplish its mission.

While the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) regulations establish a standard for determining employer liability for sexual harassment under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act, the DoD definition of sexual harassment establishes a standard that exceeds that of the EEOC. This more comprehensive standard expands on the definition to include identifying supervisors and those in command positions who use or condone implicit or explicit sexual behavior to affect another's career, pay, or job as engaging in sexual harassment. [Ibid.]

b. Policy

The DoN is committed to maintaining a work environment free from unlawful discriminatory practices and inappropriate behavior. In support of this commitment, it is DoN policy that:

- Sexual harassment is prohibited. All DoN personnel, military and civilian, will be provided a work environment free from unlawful discrimination, which includes sexual harassment. Off-duty or non-duty behaviors that affect the military workplace may also be considered to be sexual harassment.
- All DoN personnel, military and civilian, will be educated and trained upon accession (within 90 days to the extent possible) and annually thereafter, in the areas of identification, prevention, resolution and elimination of sexual harassment. Training programs will use a three-tiered behavioral zone

approach to explain the spectrum of sexual harassment. Annual training shall include the application of pertinent informal and formal complaint procedures.

- DoN personnel who may be called upon to conduct or review investigations into alleged incidents of sexual harassment should receive training in DoN policy on equal opportunity and investigative methods and processes.
- Individuals who believe they have been sexually harassed shall be provided the opportunity to seek resolution and redress. Commanders and those in supervisory positions shall ensure that notification of sexual harassment can be made in a command climate that does not tolerate acts of reprisal, intimidation, or further acts of harassment. All personnel shall be made aware of the avenues of resolution and redress that are available.
- All reported incidents of sexual harassment shall be investigated and resolved at the lowest appropriate level. The nature of the investigation will depend upon the particular facts and circumstances and may consist of an informal inquiry where that action is sufficient to resolve factual issues. All incidents shall be resolved promptly and with sensitivity. Confidentiality will be maintained to the extent possible. For civilian employees, confidentiality is guaranteed during the informal stage of a discrimination complaint, if requested. Feedback will be provided to all affected individuals consistent with the requirements of the Privacy Act, Freedom of Information Act, and other pertinent laws, regulations and negotiated agreements. Both the complainant and the subject(s) of a complaint may appeal administrative findings.
- Counseling support or referral services will be made available for all personnel involved in incidents of sexual harassment. [Ibid.]

c. Range of Behaviors That Constitute Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment is behavior that is unwelcome, sexual in nature, and connected in some way with a person's job or work environment. A wide range of behaviors can possibly meet these criteria and, therefore, constitute sexual harassment. It can be difficult to determine whether or not a behavior constitutes sexual harassment. For a person's behavior to be considered sexual harassment, it must meet three criteria: It must be unwelcome, sexual in nature, and occur in or impact on the work environment.

- Unwelcome Behavior: It is a behavior that a person does not ask for, and which that person considers undesirable or offensive. Not everyone has the same perception of "undesirable or offensive." Since the person being

subjected to the behavior—the recipient—is the one being affected, it is the recipient's perception that counts. Using a "reasonable person standard" from the perspective of the recipient is considered a common sense approach in determining which might be considered sexual harassment. In this regard, behavior, which the recipient finds unwelcome, should be stopped.

- Behavior Sexual in Nature: It is fairly easy to determine. Telling sexually explicit jokes, displaying sexually suggestive pictures, and talking about sex are obviously "sexual in nature." Some people would consider other behaviors, such as touching, to be sexual in some cases but not in others. Using common sense will normally be enough to determine whether or not a certain behavior is sexual in nature. [Ibid.]

For sexual harassment to occur, unwelcome sexual behavior must occur in or impact on the work environment:

- When recipient are offered or denied something that is work-connected in return for submitting to or rejecting unwelcome sexual behavior, they have been subjected to a type of sexual harassment known as "quid pro quo," or "this for that." Examples include: getting or losing a job, a promotion or demotion, a good or bad performance evaluation, etc. If any work-related decisions are made based on the submission to or rejection of the unwelcome sexual behavior, sexual harassment has occurred. Normally, this is from a senior to a junior, because the senior person has something to offer.
- When the unwelcome sexual behavior of one or more persons in a workplace interferes with another person's work performance, sexual harassment has occurred. If the behavior produces a work atmosphere, which is offensive, intimidating, or abusive to another person, whether or not work performance is affected, and a type of sexual harassment called "hostile environment" has occurred. The following are a few examples of behavior that could create a hostile environment:
 - Using sexually explicit or sexually offensive language;
 - Displaying sexually-oriented posters or calendars;
 - Touching someone in a suggestive manner;
 - Giving someone unwelcome letters, cards, or gifts of a personal nature, particularly when these items have sexual overtones;
 - Unwanted or uninvited pressure for dated.
- Certain types of unwelcome sexual behavior do not have to create "hostile environment" to be considered sexual harassment. If the behavior occurs in the work environment and is unreasonable, such as groping, it may be

considered sexual harassment, even if it were displayed only once. Other less obvious behaviors can become sexual harassment if they are repeated. [Ibid.]

There is a wide range of behaviors that can be unwelcome, sexual, and work-connected and can, therefore, constitute sexual harassment. Some behaviors may be unwelcome and work-connected, but not sexual (for example, performance counseling), and obviously do not constitute sexual harassment. To explain the range of behaviors that may constitute sexual harassment, the traffic light illustration was developed in which behaviors are divided into three zones, corresponding to the colors on a traffic light. Green on the traffic light means, "go" and behavior in the green zone is acceptable. Green zone behavior is not considered sexual harassment. Yellow on the traffic light means, "caution" and behavior in the yellow zone may be sexual harassment. Red on the traffic light means, "stop" and the red zone behaviors are considered to be sexual harassment. Just as with a traffic light, if behaviors over time are considered to be in the yellow zone the light will turn red. If yellow zone behaviors occur repeatedly, especially after the offending person has been told the behaviors are unwelcome, it becomes a red zone behavior; i.e., sexual harassment. The following examples illustrate these types of behavior:

- Green Zone: These behaviors are not sexual harassment: touching which could not reasonably be perceived in a sexual way (such as shaking hands, or a friendly pat on the shoulder), counseling on military appearance, social interaction, showing concern or encouragement, a polite compliment, or friendly conversation.
- Yellow Zone: Many people find these behaviors unacceptable and they could be sexual harassment: violating personal space, whistling, questions about personal life, lewd or sexually suggestive comments, suggestive posters or calendars, off-color jokes, leering, staring, repeated requests for dates, foul language, unwanted letters or poems, or sexually suggestive touching or gesturing.

- Red Zone: These behaviors are always considered sexual harassment: sexual favors in return for employment rewards, threats if sexual favors are not provided, sexually explicit pictures (including calendars or posters) or remarks, using status to request dates, or obscene letters or comments. The most severe forms of sexual harassment constitute criminal conduct, e.g., sexual assault. [Ibid.]

The above examples are used as guidance only. It may be that individuals believe they are being sexually harassed based on their perceptions- that each incident is judged on the totality of facts in that particular case, and that individuals' judgment may vary on the same facts as presented. [Ibid.]

d. Accountability

The following rules are regulatory orders and apply to all DoN personnel individually and without further implementation. A violation of these provisions by military personnel is punishable in accordance with the Uniform Code of Military Justice (UCMJ), and is the basis for disciplinary action with respect to civilian employees. The following prohibitions apply to all conduct, which impacts a DoD working environment. The reasonable person standard shall be used to determine whether a violation of these provisions has occurred. No individual in the DoN shall:

- Commit sexual harassment as defined above;
- Take reprisal action against a person who provides information on an incident of alleged sexual harassment;
- Knowingly make false accusation of sexual harassment; or
- While in a supervisory or command position, condone or ignore sexual harassment of which he or she has knowledge or has reason to have knowledge. [Ibid.]

The appropriate action to resolve an incident of sexual harassment will depend upon the circumstances surrounding that incident. Incidents of sexual harassment cover a wide range of behaviors, from verbal comments to physical acts, and can be subtle or overt. Likewise, the full range of administrative and disciplinary actions is available to address sexual harassment. In the case of military personnel, these include informal counseling, comments in fitness reports and evaluations, administrative separation, and punitive measures under UCMJ. In cases of civilians, options include informal counseling, comments in performance evaluations, and disciplinary action, including removal from Federal Service.

Military personnel of the Navy and Marine Corps shall be processed for administrative separation on the first substantiated incident of sexual harassment involving any of the following circumstances (for the purposes of this subparagraph, an incident is substantiated if there has been a court-martial conviction or if the Commanding Officer determines that sexual harassment has occurred):

- Action, threats, or attempts to influence another's career or job in exchange for sexual favors; or
- Physical contacts of a sexual nature which, if charged as a violation of the UCMJ, could result in punitive discharge. [Ibid.]

Commanders are not precluded from initiating administrative proceedings for reasons set forth in the appropriate service regulations for individuals whose conduct warrants separation not covered above. [Ibid.]

e. Responsibility

Leadership is the key to eliminating all forms of unlawful discrimination. Sound leadership must be the cornerstone of the effort to eliminate sexual harassment. It is not the intent of Sexual Harassment Policy to impair Commanders and Supervisors in their ability to take appropriate actions to carry out leadership responsibilities. Commanders must set the example in treating all people with dignity and respect, fostering a climate free of all forms of unlawful discrimination including sexual harassment. Such a climate is essential to maintain high morale, discipline, and readiness. Commanders and Supervisors are responsible for and must be committed to preventing sexual harassment in their command and work environment. They must not ignore or condone sexual harassment in any form, and they must take whatever action is required to ensure that a recipient of sexual harassment is not subsequently also the victim of reprisal or retaliation. --Reprisals-- taking or threatening to take an unfavorable personal action or withholding or threatening to withhold a favorable personnel action, or any other act of retaliation, against a military member or civilian employee for participation in the EEO or EO appeal process-- are prohibited under this policy whether they are originated by the command, the alleged perpetrator, or peers of the complaint. [Ibid.]

Individuals, who believe they have been sexually harassed, are encouraged to address their concerns or objections regarding the incident directly with the person demonstrating the harassing behavior. Persons who are subjected to or observe objectionable behavior should promptly notify the chain of command if:

- The objective behavior does not stop; or
- The situation is not resolved; or

- Addressing the objectionable behavior with the person concerned is not reasonable under the circumstances;
- The behavior is clearly criminal in nature. [Ibid.]

If the person demonstrating the objectionable behavior is a direct superior in the chain of command or the chain of command condones the conduct or ignores a report, individuals who have been subjected to or who observe objectionable behavior are encouraged to promptly communicate the incident through other available means. [Ibid.]

All personnel are responsible for treating others with dignity and respect. This means fully and faithfully complying with this policy. All DoN personnel are accountable for their actions. [Ibid.]

C. DISCUSSION OF POLICIES FOR THE TURKISH NAVY

1. Family Care Policy

The Turkish Navy does not deploy worldwide, as much as the United States Navy. However, in Turkey, the nature of naval service dictates that members be ready to deploy throughout the world on short notice and be able to fully execute their military, professional duties. Because of the emphasis on family values in Turkish society, an adequate family care policy is considered vital to Turkish sailors.

The United States Navy Family Care Policy is intended to assist members in developing workable family care plans and to establish procedural requirements in accordance with Department of Defense's (DoD) and Secretary of Navy's (SECNAV) instructions [Ref. 51]. The policy instructs service-members to delegate family care responsibilities to desired, appointed people in their absence. However, it disregards

spillovers--those unintended effects that spill over onto people or institutions that are not directly concerned with the issue being analyzed [Ref. 59 p.77]--such as the possible effect on the child left behind and completeness of family. Even though, from the Navy's perspective, the policy may solve family care problems, this may not be correct/satisfactory from the service members' perspective, because they, their dependents, and, in fact, the Navy itself may feel the effects of the economic and psychological hardships families endure.

The Navy Personnel Research and Development Center (NPRDC) "Navy-wide Personnel Survey (NPS) 1990-1996: Summary of Trends" indicates that satisfaction with the quality of Service Member and Family Support Services was 55-percent for officers and 45-percent for enlisted personnel in 1996 [Ref. 60 p.9]. The same research results also show that, overall, 86-percent of officers and 58-percent of enlisted personnel could afford the things they or their families needed [Ref. 60 p.13]. The research results mentioned above show that the Family Care Program may not be very effective in the United States.

Family Care is an even bigger economic problem in developing countries, such as Turkey. A Family Care program that instructs service members to delegate their responsibilities in their absence will create extraordinary economic and administrative burdens for Turkish military personnel. Service members may question the Navy's personnel policies and, loyalty of the Navy to its members. Programs should aim to increase, not decrease, the standard of living of service members. However, a family care program that provides administrative solutions (such as not allowing single parents to

deploy, etc.) and economical solutions (such as a family care allowance, etc.) will be more effective and create higher levels of loyalty and retention for the Navy, possibly.

For centuries, the Armed Forces in Turkish society have been one of the nation's most important institutions and have represented the norms of justice, honor, morale, creativity, and civilization. The United States Navy's Family Care policy, without additional administrative and economical support for service members, will be inefficient for the Turkish Navy.

2. Equal Opportunity Policy

The provisions of the United States Navy Equal Opportunity (EO) Policy aim to attain and maintain a high state of morale, discipline, readiness, and military effectiveness in an equal opportunity environment. The policy applies to all active-duty Navy and Naval Reserve units and to assigned civilian personnel without regard to race, ethnicity, religion, gender, or national origin within the constraints of the law. [Ref.52]

Contemporary Turkish society was born out of the painful disintegration of six-century lasting Ottoman Empire in last 75-years. Turkey's unique and fast development in the twentieth century changed Turkish society beyond recognition regarding the Ottoman society, especially in cities and towns; however, the countryside did not change dramatically, because of economic constraints and unequal resource allocation. The government, in a mere 75-years, could not provide equal economic opportunities to all regions of the country. Unequal opportunities in different institutions within society resulted in classifications in Turkish society, especially for women. Over the past 75

years, the Turkish Armed Forces have set an example of providing the most equal opportunities to the society.

The United States' Equal Opportunity Policy can be applied to the Turkish Navy. This policy would expect to enhance norms of justice, morale, honor, creativity, and civilization in the Turkish Navy and Armed Forces.

3. Assignment of Women Members in the Department of Navy

United States Navy policy states that women, both officers and enlisted, will be assigned, to the maximum extent practicable, to billets commensurate with their capabilities. The policy delineates when women may serve on board Navy ships, aircraft, and with Marine Corps units, but does not mandate assignment of women to any particular ship, aircraft, or Marine Corps unit. Accordingly, women:

- May be assigned to all afloat staffs, all combat air squadrons, and all surface ships that have been modified to allow appropriate berthing arrangements.
- May be assigned TEMDU or TEMADD to all squadrons and ships, and all units authorized for permanent assignment of women, without restriction.
- May be assigned TEMDU or TEMADD to units, closed to the assignment of women due to direct combat exclusion, that are not expected to conduct a combat mission during the period of temporary duty. If women are so assigned to a unit that is closed and the unit is subsequently assigned a combat mission, every reasonable effort will be made to remove the women prior to execution of such mission.
- May embark in any unit for official purposes not requiring TEMDU or TEMADD orders, such as for the performance of inspections, support functions, or visits.
- May not be assigned to sea-air-land (SEAL) teams, infantry regiments and below, artillery battalions and below, any armored units (tanks, amphibious assault vehicles, and light armored reconnaissance), riverine assault craft units, units and positions which are doctrinally required to physically collocate and remain with direct combat units that are closed to women, and units engaged in long-range reconnaissance operations and Special Operations Forces missions.

- May not be permanently assigned to currently designed classes of submarines, mine countermeasure ships (MCM), mine hunter coastal ships (MHC), and patrol crafts (PC) due to the prohibitive cost to modify these ships for appropriate berthing and privacy arrangements. [Ref. 53]

Currently, Turkish Navy has only combatant female officers currently. They are assigned to all afloat staffs, all combat air squadrons, and all surface ships that have been modified to allow for appropriate gender berthing arrangements. The single restriction for combatant female officers is assignment as a Turkish Marine officer. Turkish Marine officers are trained in the Turkish Army Academy in infantry and military engineering occupational specialties, which are currently not open to women.

TEM DU and TEM ADD for all officers in the Turkish Navy are considered a part of their combat role, meaning that combatant female officers can be assigned to any TEM DU and TEM ADD units. The combatant female officers assigned to TEM DU and TEM ADD are not removed even though assigned to direct ground combat, unless the combatant female officer wants to be removed.

In the Turkish Navy, the only restriction preventing combatant female officers from being part of a SEAL team are the physical requirements of the job. The main criteria for screening officers for any assignment are the gender-neutral physical, and the administrative and educational requirements of a particular job. A "no tolerance" policy regarding job requirements for any assignment is the key management tool in the Navy. Any officer in the Turkish Navy, who fulfills the requirements of any particular job can be assigned to that job regardless of gender, excepting assignment to a Marine unit.

The United States' policy on assignment of women in the Department of the Navy can be applied broadly to the Turkish Navy, except as stated above.

4. Department of the Navy Policy on Pregnancy

The United States' Department of the Navy Policy on pregnancy states that pregnancy and parenthood are compatible with a naval career for all DoN personnel, both Regular and Reserve, except midshipmen. The policy provides equal opportunity to pregnant servicewomen, while maintaining operational readiness to meet the nation's strategic goals. DoN leadership recognizes that pregnancy is a natural event that can occur in the lives of Navy and Marine Corps servicewomen, and is not a presumption of medical incapability. [Ref. 54]

The importance of family values in Turkish society and the social classification of Turkish women will be barriers to the careers of Turkish combatant female officers in the Armed Forces. The traditional maternal role in the family, and the desire for career improvement among modern Turkish women, create conflicting goals for Turkish combatant female officers unless equal opportunity policies relevant to pregnancy, such as a U.S. Pregnancy Policy, are created. A combatant female officer's pregnancy should not be regarded as a medical incapability and should not be considered a barrier to her career. Counseling, administrative and medical help, assignment opportunities during pregnancy and delivery, and childcare for female officers should be regarded as an investment by the Navy. As such, the United States Navy policy on pregnancy can be applied to the Turkish Navy and provide equal opportunities for the Turkish female officers.

5. Policy on Management of Pregnant Servicewomen

The United States' policy on management of pregnant servicewomen provides administrative guidance for managing pregnant servicewomen and promoting uniformity in the medical-administrative management of normal pregnancies. [Ref. 55]

Availability of medical emergency evacuation for pregnant officers should be the main criterion for having pregnant female officers onboard in the Turkish Navy. Based on current availability of emergency medical evacuation, assigning the pregnant officer to shore facilities, regardless of her pregnancy period, would be the most effective solution to the situation.

Given the traditional and contemporary Turkish family values, a pregnant officer should be able to select her future career based on her preferences about child-raising and family care. She should be able to change her career, MOS, from Unrestricted Line (URL) to Restricted Line (RL), depending upon the Navy's needs and her preferences about her family and career. The opportunity to change MOS would enhance the productivity of female officers and provide family integrity not only for single parents, but also for dual parents.

As defined in their policy, the health care provider system in the United States Armed Forces may appear different from the Turkish health care system. However, the systems, when considered, are similar in practice. The health care providers for Turkish military personnel, with the exception of emergency cases and unavailability of sufficient military MTFs, are those facilities sponsored by the Armed Forces and Emekli Sandigi (the social security system for Turkish military personnel). For emergency cases, public

health care providers or any health care provider, either public or private, can be used as the health care provider for the military personnel. In the case of unavailability of sufficient military MTFs, the closest military or government occupational health professional may assist military personnel to other available health care providers, either public or private. In any case, whether it is an emergency, or whether sufficient military MTFs are unavailable, Emekli Sandigi pays for the medical treatment of military personnel. Both the health care provider and the individual service member are responsible for informing the member's Commander concerning the individual's health problems. The pregnancy of any servicewoman will be considered an usual health problem, and occupational health professionals will decide about further necessities.

Restrictions on the assignment of pregnant officers to foreign country staff duties should be based on the duration of the pregnancy (no assignment after the 20th week of pregnancy), medical treatment availability, housing availability, and the availability of the servicewomen's dependents for support. If any of the above criteria are not met, then the pregnant officer should be counseled and asked for her approval on current supports available.

Regulations of the Turkish Armed Forces dictate that service members confined to a military prison should be medically examined and confirmed healthy. Under current regulations, pregnant servicewomen, with the exception of those who have committed a felony, can not be imprisoned. Service members confined by any civilian court for a felony are discharged from the services.

Convalescent leave of six weeks with pay is medically granted after delivery for any government employee in Turkey. The same law applies to servicewomen after

delivery. However, a government employee can also extend her leave up to six-months without pay after using her six weeks of convalescent leave with pay. This law is also applicable to any servicewoman after delivery and leads the Turkish Navy to assign pregnant servicewomen to shore duties during pregnancy, and six-months following delivery.

Government employees wishing to breast-feed their infant(s) after delivery are allowed to breast-feed their infants two-times a day during working hours and can use one-and-a-half hours with pay for this purpose, for six-months following delivery. They can also shorten their working hours by one-and-a-half hours with pay during the six-months following delivery. The same law also applies to servicewomen, as government workers, wishing to breast-feed their infant(s). The law allowing servicewomen to breast-feed her infant(s) following delivery guides the Turkish Navy to assign servicewomen to shore duties during pregnancy and at least six months following delivery.

The United States' policy on management of pregnant servicewomen described above is applicable to the Turkish Navy, except for the areas mentioned above.

6. Navy Abortion Policy

The United States Navy Abortion Policy restricts health professionals from performing elective abortions paid for by the patient in Naval MTFs. Physicians who perform abortions in Naval MTFs must verify the procedure is necessary because the mother's life would be endangered if the fetus were carried to term. [Ref. 56]

In Turkey, the law allows elective abortion in government MT facilities during the first three months (up to the 13th week of pregnancy). The law does not authorize

abortion after the 13th week of pregnancy unless the mother's life would be in danger if the fetus is carried to term. The health care provider of government employees pays for elective and non-elective abortion in government MTFs. The same law also applies to pregnant servicewomen. Pregnant servicewomen can have an elective abortion up to the 13th week of pregnancy in military MTFs at government expense. Abortion after the 13th week of pregnancy is restricted to medical needs only.

Restrictions on elective abortion in the United States Navy Abortion Policy are not applicable to the Turkish Navy because of abortion law differences; however, the part of the policy on abortions for medical needs is applicable to the Turkish Navy.

7. Navy Fraternization Policy

The United States Navy Fraternization Policy defines guidelines for personal relationships between officers and enlisted members, between officers, or between enlisted members of different rank or grade. "Fraternization" is the term traditionally used to identify personal relationships that contravene the customary bounds of an acceptable senior-subordinate relationship. Although it has most commonly been applied to officer-enlisted relationships, fraternization also includes improper relationships and social interaction between officers, as well as between enlisted service members. Fraternization is a gender-neutral concept, not one that focuses on the gender of those involved. Rather, it focuses on the erosion of respect for authority inherent in an unduly familiar senior-subordinate relationship and the resulting detriment to good order and discipline. [Ref. 57]

Historically, a combination of good order, a high level of discipline, and professionalism is the main management concept of the Turkish Armed Forces as well. Any relationship that may be harmful to this conception of the Navy results in discharge from the Navy. However, dating or marriage between officers and between officers and petty officers (including chief petty officers) is not restricted in the Navy by law unless the dating or married couples lose professionalism between their private and military lives. To maintain good order, a high level of discipline, and professionalism, the Navy prohibits married couples from working in the same chain of command.

The United States Navy Fraternization Policy is not fully applicable to the Turkish Navy, because of current Turkish law allows marriages between officers of different ranks and between officers and petty officers (including chief petty officers).

8. Department of Navy (DoN) Policy on Sexual Harassment

The United States' DoN Policy on Sexual Harassment, which applies to all DoN personnel, provides a comprehensive policy for all military and civilian personnel in the identification, prevention, and elimination of sexual harassment and establishes regulations to enforce that policy. The policy emphasizes the significant economic costs of sexual harassment. However, even more harmful than the costs of sexual harassment are its negative effects on productivity and readiness, including increased absenteeism, greater personnel turnover, lower morale, decreased effectiveness, and a loss of personal, organizational, and public trust. While not easily quantified, these costs are real in the human services, and seriously affect DoN's ability to accomplish its mission. [Ref. 58]

Historically, because of Islamic male honor values, the protection of Turkish women in society--regardless of whether or not there is a need for that protection--is considered vital for the moral and honor norms of Turkish society. Islamic male honor values, which are still very important and can be lethal for the rule breaker in Turkish society, emphasize the importance of the sexual harassment issue in the Turkish Navy.

Even though Turks combine a "macho" culture with acceptance of women in authority, an equality of Turkish women in society with males, remains based on their educational, economic level, and authority level. Service members coming from different functions of society most likely will have problems defining and identifying sexual harassment. The United States Policy on Sexual Harassment defines and identifies sexual harassment in all aspects. The United States Policy appears to be applicable to the Turkish Navy in most all ways.

Policies of the United States Navy for managing the female officers, regarding the Turkish cultural, social, and religious values, may be utilized as a basic management tool of the Turkish Navy. The following chapter of the thesis will provide recommendations to solve potential management problems of female officers in the Turkish Navy.

IV. RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The discussion of policies for managing female officers in the Turkish Navy in the previous chapter stated that some of the U.S. policies can not be fully applied to the Turkish Navy based on cultural, social, and religious norms of the Turkish nation, which were addressed in Chapter II. However, even the policies judged applicable may require some adjustments because of the evolutionary change in both the American and Turkish social norms. The following section of the thesis is intended to support Turkish policy makers/managers/Commanders in resolving potential problematic areas in developing policies for managing combatant female officers in the Turkish navy.

A. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Family Care Policy

Based on Turkish family values, the Turkish Navy should adopt a policy that single parents (male and female) with custodial care of children up to three years of age must accept assignment to non-deployable positions. Single parents with custody of children under school age should not be required to deploy, but may volunteer to do so. In addition, single parents with custody of children under school age should not be initially permitted to join the Turkish Navy unless they have an approved and reliable child care program in place. In any case, single parents in the Turkish Navy should be exempt from deployment and/or direct combat until their children reach school age. [Ref. 11 p.15, 16,17]

Single parents (male and female) in the Turkish Navy should be given priority to obtain childcare services in naval childcare centers. In addition, Turkish military housing opportunities for the single parent should also be a privilege for them in order to accommodate their dependents.

Single parent servicewomen and wives in dual-service families should be given the opportunity to change their military occupational specialty (MOS) from Unrestricted Line (URL) officer to Restricted Line (RL) officer for child care and family integrity purposes.

In the case of dual-service families in the Turkish Navy, only one parent should be allowed to serve in a deployable position, and one parent (preferably the wife because of the maternity role) should be exempt from direct combat. Spouses of military parents with custody of children under school age should not be allowed to enter into the Navy unless they have an approved and reliable child care program. [Ref. 11 p.15, 16,17]

2. Equal Opportunity Policy

Equal Opportunity Policy of the Turkish Navy should ensure that any person who is best qualified will not be denied access on the basis of gender to an assignment that is open to both men and women. The Turkish Navy should select the best-qualified people for all positions to recruit, promote, retain, and assign on a competitive basis without quotas. All MOSs open to women in the Turkish Navy should not be filled on a basis of gender [Ref. 11 p.13]. Policy makers should keep in mind that situations where gender quotas are used, may well become discriminatory, jeopardize unit morale and cohesion of the Navy, and, finally, possibly work against the Navy's best interests. Additionally, use

of gender quotas may foster a perception of discrimination and sexual harassment. [Ref. 11 p.1]

The purpose of general fitness in the Turkish Navy should be defined as:

- the general health and wellness;
- a sufficient level of muscular strength, muscular endurance, cardiorespiratory capacity, and flexibility to accomplish a day's work without undue fatigue;
- the ability to perform required physical activities at the desired level.

Based on the purpose of general fitness, *gender and age-specific* fitness standards should apply to both Turkish female and male officers performing similar roles in the Turkish Navy. In other words, general fitness standards should not be a barrier for the service-members in their career based on their gender and age. [Ref. 11 p.5]

However, physical strength standards of certain MOSs such as aviation, and special operations etc. may meet and possibly exceed the general fitness standards. Physical strength standards would benefit the Turkish Navy by matching only physically qualified people, men or women, to those physically demanding MOSs [Ref. 11 p.13]. *Gender-neutral* physical strength standards for the qualifications of certain MOSs commensurate with specialty demands should be addressed in the policies of the Turkish Navy. [Ref. 11 p.7]

Entry level training, which is to provide nominees a basic indoctrination to the military, should be *gender-specific*, as necessary. Entry-level basic physical training standards should be established for purposes of achieving general physical fitness. No attempt should be made to align the general fitness standards of the entry level basic

physical training, to the future physically demanding MOSs. Integrated entry-level training for male and female nominees should be utilized in the Turkish Navy to support the future integrated working environments. [Ref. 11 p.9]

The Turkish Navy should send officers and possibly senior non-commissioned officers to the course given at "Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute, Patrick Air Force Base, Florida, USA" in order to educate its policy makers in equal opportunity issues. Necessary courses for the Turkish Navy given at this institute might be "The Equal Opportunity-Staff Advisor Course," "The Equal Opportunity Program Orientation for Managers," "Equal Employment Opportunity Courses," and "Senior Executive Leaders Equal Opportunity Training." These courses will provide new perspectives to the Turkish policy makers. [Ref. 61 p.10, 11, 12]

3. Assignment of Women Members in the Department of Navy

Gender-neutral assignment policies should be the base line for utilization of the Turkish female officers in the Navy. Both servicewomen and servicemen should be assigned to any position open to them based on the needs of the Navy. Turkish policy makers should keep in mind that concepts, such as assignment based on an individual's wish, will hinder combat readiness and effectiveness, especially in an era that necessitates a ready, deployable force. In addition, a policy implementing special standards, set asides, or privileges for one gender would be contrary to the interests of both sexes and the Navy. Research suggests that servicewomen and servicemen should be treated as equal in those areas where women are not restricted by law or policy. [Ref. 11 p.3]

A Turkish Chief of Naval Operations Advisory Committee on Women in the Services should be established to evaluate and make recommendations on women's issues and policies. This organization, composed of experts on physiological, psychological, legal, and management areas issues related to women, should regularly review policy decisions and garner field input for analysis of women in the military. In addition, a Turkish Minister of Defense Advisory Committee on Women should be established for Minister of Defense-wide evaluations and recommendations on women's issues. These committees should work in co-ordination to propose policies and laws for the Turkish Parliament.

4. Department of Navy Policy on Pregnancy and Policy on Management of Pregnant Servicewomen

A key to military readiness is that all members, male and female, deploy with their units with the exception of pregnant women, who should not deploy after medically declared pregnant, to six months after delivery. Pregnant servicewomen in the Turkish Navy should not be assigned to, nor remain in, positions with high probability of deployment. The Turkish Navy should define those areas where a pregnant servicewoman can serve during pregnancy and also those areas where her pregnancy would have an adverse affect on the operational unit's readiness. [Ref. 11 p.20]

In case of inevitable assignment/deployment of pregnant servicewoman, availability of medical emergency evacuation for pregnant officers should be a criterion for having pregnant female officers onboard deployed ships in the Turkish Navy. Based on current availability of emergency medical evacuation in the Turkish Navy, assigning

the pregnant officer to shore facilities, regardless of her pregnancy period, would be the most effective solution to potential future health problems.

Given the traditional and contemporary Turkish family values, a pregnant officer should be able to change her career, and/or MOS, from Unrestricted Line to Restricted Line, depending upon the Navy's needs and her preferences toward her family and career. The opportunity to change MOS would enhance the productivity of female officers, retain a valuable asset, and provide family integrity not only for single parents, but also for dual parents.

Assignment of pregnant officers to foreign country staff duties should be based on the duration of the pregnancy (no assignment after the 20th week of pregnancy), medical treatment availability, housing availability, and the availability of the servicewomen's dependents for support. Therefore, for an assignment at a new duty station, If the pregnancy term is more than 20-weeks, medical treatment is not available, housing service is not available, or family members of the pregnant servicewomen are not with her for support; then the pregnant officer should be counseled, and asked for her approval based on current services available to her at the new assignment.

Regulations of the Turkish Armed Forces dictate that service members confined to a military prison should be medically examined and confirmed healthy. Under current regulations, pregnant servicewomen, with the exception of those who have committed a felony, can not be imprisoned. Confinement of pregnant servicewomen under current laws and regulations should be postponed until six months after her delivery.

Turkish government employees (civilians) wishing to breast-feed their infant(s) after delivery are allowed to breast-feed their infants two-times a day during working

hours. The nursing mothers can use one-and-a-half hours with pay for this purpose during the first six-months following delivery. They can either use two 45-minute breaks for breast feeding, or shorten their working hours by one-and-a-half hours with pay during the six-months following delivery. The same law also applies to servicewomen, as government workers, wishing to breast-feed their infant(s). Based on the current law, the Turkish Navy should assign pregnant servicewomen to shore duties during pregnancy and at least six months following delivery for breast-feeding purposes.

The Turkish Navy should design and develop maternity uniforms based on the experience of allied countries and the physical/traditional norms of Turkish women. The maternity uniforms should be mandatory wear for all pregnant servicewomen in the Turkish Navy when a regular prescribed uniform no longer fits.

5. Navy Abortion Policy

Turkish law dictating abortion allows elective abortion in government treatment facilities during the first three months (up to the 13th week) of pregnancy. The law does not authorize abortion after the 13th week of pregnancy unless the mother's life would be in danger if the fetus were carried to term. The health care provider of government employees pays for the elective or non-elective abortion in government treatment facilities. The same law also applies to pregnant servicewomen. However, this issue is not addressed in current policies in any detail and leaves the issue up to a Commander's decision. The Turkish Navy should address this law in regards to relevant policies to prevent potential disputes.

6. Navy Fraternization Policy

Fraternization identifies personal relationships that contravene the customary bounds of an acceptable senior-subordinate relationship. Although it has most commonly been applied to officer-enlisted relationships, fraternization also includes improper relationships and social interaction between officers, as well as between enlisted service members. Historically, a combination of good order, a high level of discipline, and professionalism is the main management concept of the Turkish Armed Forces as well. Any relationship that may be harmful to this conception of the Turkish Navy usually results in a discharge of the responsible persons from the Navy. However, dating or marriage between officers and between officers and petty officers (including chief petty officers) is not restricted in the Turkish Navy by law, unless the dating or married couples compromise professionalism between their private and military lives. To maintain good order, a high level of discipline and professionalism within the Turkish Navy, prohibits married couples from working within the same chain of command. However, Turkish Navy fraternization policy does not cover utilization of transient officer/petty officer (including chiefs) quarters, and officer/petty officer (including chiefs) clubs, and military housing units. The Turkish Navy, however, should redefine regulations to allow married couples to utilize the transient officer/petty officer quarters, officer/petty officer clubs, and military housing units.

7. Department of Navy Policy on Sexual Harassment

Sexual Harassment training based on cultural, religious, social, traditional, and educational norms of the Navy and Turkish society should be included in the short-term

agenda. The Turkish Navy should use sexual harassment models developed by allied countries, especially the U.S. model, in order to develop its own comparable sexual harassment education model. As such, the models developed by allied countries should be modified to meet predefined cultural, traditional, and social differences of the Turkish society and the Navy. It is clear that sexual harassment training will be needed in the future, hence, training must be done prior to sexual harassment problems arising in the Turkish Navy.

B. CONCLUSION

The Turkish Minister of Defense leads many countries in commissioning women for combat roles in the military. However, leading the way in commissioning women brings new responsibilities to the Turkish Commandants, policy makers, managers, and Parliament for the most effective utilization of Turkish female officers.

A Turkish Defense Advisory Committee on Women and Service Committees, composed of relevant experts and trained policy makers, will be vital to integrating combat-ready female officers in the Turkish Armed Forces. This organization should regularly review policy decisions and garner field input prior to, and during, implementation of policies concerning women in the military.

Finally, Turkish female officers in the Armed Forces should be perceived as vital, valuable assets of the Turkish Nation and given every opportunity to contribute to the mission of the Turkish Navy.

LIST OF REFERENCES

1. Abadan-Unat, Nermin, *Women in the Developing World: Evidence from Turkey*, Graduate School of International Studies University of Denver, copyrights 1986.
2. Ahmad, Feroz, *The Making of Modern Turkey*, Routledge-London, copyright 1993.
3. Zurcher, Erik J., *Turkey A Modern History*, I.B. Tauris & Co. Ltd. Publishers-London, New York, copyright 1993, 1994.
4. Munro, Andrew, *Turkey: The Challenge of a New Role*, The Center for Strategic and International Studies Washington, D.C., copyright 1994.
5. Gonul, Saime, Lcdr.(ret.) Turkish Navy, *Phone Interview*.
6. Tuzuner, Kudret, Lcdr.(ret.) Turkish Navy, *Phone Interview*.
7. Gokcakin, Nihal, Capt.(ret.) Turkish Navy, *Phone Interview*.
8. Erdok, Seval, Lcdr.(ret.) Turkish Navy, *Phone Interview*.
9. Suer, Gunsul, Lcdr.(ret.) Turkish Navy, *Phone Interview*.
10. Oztuncer, Ilgi, Capt.(ret.) Turkish Navy, *Phone Interview*.
11. The Presidential Commission On The Assignment Of Women In The Armed Forces, *Report to the President, November 15, 1992*, The U.S. Government Printing Office, 1992.
12. Marcinik, E.J., CDR (sel), *USN. Testimony before the commission*, 26 June 1992.
13. Brooks, G.A. and T.D. Fahey. *Exercise Physiology: Human Bioenergetics and its Applications*. 1984.
14. Fleck, S.J. *Designing Resistance Training Programs*. Human Kinetics Books, Champaign, IL 1987.
15. Hosler, W.W. and J.R. Morrow. *Arm and Leg Strength Compared between Young Women and Men after Allowing for Differences in Body Size and Composition*, *Ergonomics*. 1982.
16. Laubach, L.L. . *Comparative Muscular Strength of Men and Women: A Review of the Literature*, *Aviation, Space and Environmental Medicine*. 1976.

17. Wright, J.A., D.S. Sharp, J.A. Vogel, and J.F. Patton, *Assessment of Muscle Strength and Prediction of Lifting in U.S. Army Personnel*, USARIEM Report No. M9/1985.
18. Marcinik, E.J., J.A. Hodgdon, J.J. O'Brien, and K. Mittleman, *A Comparison of the Effects of Circuit Weight Training on Navy Men and Women*, Naval Health Research Report. 1985.
19. Robertson, D.W. and T.T. Trent, *Documentation of Muscularly Demanding Job Tasks and Validation of an Occupational Strength Test Battery (STB)*, Report No.86-1. Naval Personnel Research and Development Center, San Diego, CA. 1985.
20. Vogel, J.A., J.F. Patton, R.P. Mello, and W.L. Daniels, *An Analysis of Aerobic Capacity in a Large United States Population*, USARIEM Report No. M28/1985.
21. Vogel, J.A., *Testimony before the Presidential Commission*, 7 August 1992.
22. Myers, D.C. and D. Gephart, *Validation of the Military Entrance Physical Strength Capacity Test*, USA 1984.
23. Ayoub, M.M., *Establishing Physical Criteria for Assigning Personnel to Air Force Jobs*, Institute for Ergonomics Research, Texas Tech University, 1982.
24. Davis, P.O., A.V. Curtis, and S.A. Bixby, *Physical Performance Tasks Required of U.S. Marines Operating in a Desert Environment*, Fairfax, VA, Institute of Human Performance, 1981.
25. Davis, P.O., A.V. Curtis, and D.A. Hall, *Physical Performance Requirements of U.S. Marines Operating in a High Altitude Cold Weather Environment*, Fairfax, VA, Institute of Human Performance, 1982.
26. Davis, P.O., A.V. Curtis, and D.A. Hall, *Physical Performance Requirements of U.S. Marines during Amphibious Operations*, Fairfax, VA, Institute of Human Performance, 1983.
27. Davis, P.O., B.J. Sharkey, and D.A. Hall, *Physical Performance Requirements of U.S. Marines Operating in Jungle Operations*, Fairfax, VA, Institute of Human Performance, 1983.
28. Jones, B., R. Manikowski, J. Harris, J. Dziados, and J. Vogel, *Incidence of and Risk Factors for Injury and Illness among Male and Female Army Basic Trainees*, USARIEM Report Number T19. 1988.
29. Kowald, D., *The Nature and Cause of Injuries in Female Recruits Resulting from an 8-Week Physical Training Program*, USARIEM Report No. M. 1979.

30. Drinkwater, B.L., *Women and Exercise. Physiological Aspects in Exercise and Sport Science Reviews*. R.L. Terjung, Ed. The Collamore Press, Lexington, MA volume 12 pp. 21-51, 1984.
31. Avellini, B.A., E. Kamon, and J.T. Karajewski, *Physiologic Responsess of Physically Fit Men and Women to Acclimation to Humid Heat*, Journal of Applied Physiology, 49:254- 261, 1980.
32. Frye, A.J., and E.Kamon, *Responses to Dry and Wet Heat Of Men and Women with Similar Aerobic Capacities*, Journal of Applied Physiology, 50:65-70, 1981.
33. Drinkwater, B.L., L.J. Folinsbee, J.F. Bedi, S.A. Plowman, A.B. Loucks, and S.M. Horvath, *Responses of Women Mountaineers to Maximal Exercise during Hypoxia*, Aviation, Space and Environmental Medicine, 50: 657-662, 1979.
34. Wagner, J.A., and D.S. Miles, S.M. Horvath, and J.A. Reyburn, *Maximal Work Capacity of Women during Acute Hypoxia*, Journal of Applied Physiology, 47: 1223-1227, 1979.
35. Harris, C.W., J.L. Shields and J.P. Hannon, *Acute Mountain Sickness in Females*, Aerospace Medicine, 37: 1163-1167, 1966.
36. Kramar, P.O., B.L. Drinkwater, L.J. Folinsbee, and J.F. Bedi, *Ocular Function and Incidence of Acute Mountain Sickness in Women at Altitude*, Aviation, Space and Environmental Medicine, 54: 116-120, 1983.
37. McArdle, W.D., J.R. Magel, R.J. Spina, M.M. Toner, *Adjustment to Cold Water Exposure in Exercising Men and Women*, Journal of Applied Physiology, 56 (6): 1565-1571, 1984.
38. Gillingham, K.K., C.M. Schade, W.G. Jackson, and L.C. Gilstrap, *Women's G-Tolerance*, Aviation, Space, and Environmental Medicine, 57: 745-53, 1986.
39. Fischer, M.D. and J.F. Wiegman, *Female Tolerance to Sustained Acceleration – A Retrospective Study*, KRUG Life Science, San Antonio Division, San Antonio, TX. 1992.
40. Crisman, Dr. R., *Presidential Commission on the Assignment of Women in the Armed Forces*, Science Seminar Proceedings, 14-15 September 1992.
41. Lyons, T.J., *Women in the Fast Jet Cockpit-Aeromedical Considerations*, Aviation, Space, and Environmental Medicine, 63: 809-18, 1992.
42. Crowley, J.S., *Cerebral Laterality and Handedness in Aviation*.

43. Sherman, J.A. and E. Fennema, *Distribution of Spatial Visualization and Mathematical Problem Solving Scores*, *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 3, 157-167, 1978.
44. Harris, L.J., *Sex Differences in Spatial Ability: Possible Environmental, Genetic, and Neurological Factors*, In Kinsbourne, M. (Ed.), *Asymmetrical Function of the Brain*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, p.405-522, 1978.
45. Hyde, L.J., E.R. Geiringer, and W.M. Yen, *On the Empirical Relation between Spatial Ability and Sex Differences in other Aspects of Cognitive Performance*, *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 10, 289-309, 1975.
46. Kantor, J.E., B.E. Noble, S.A. Leisley, and T. McFarlane, *Air Force Female Pilots Program: Initial Performance and Attitudes*, AFHRL-TR, 1978.
47. Hicks, R.J., *Female Aircrew: The Canadian Experience*, *AGARD Symposium on Recruiting Selection, Training and Military Operations of Female Aircrew*. Tours, France. 4-5 April 1990.
48. Boff, K.K., *Sensory, Perceptual and Psychomotor Performance. Presidential Commission on the Assignment of Women in the Armed Forces*, Science Seminar Proceedings. 14-15 September 1992.
49. Kowal, D., *Testimony before the Commission*, 6 April 1992.
50. Gregor, W.J., *Testimony before the Commission*, 12 September 1992.
51. OPNAVINST 1740.4A, Family Care Policy.
52. OPNAVINST 5354.1D, Equal Opportunity Policy.
53. SECNAVINST 1300.12B, Assignment Women in the DoN Policy.
54. SECNAVINST 1000.10, Pregnancy Policy.
55. OPNAVINST 6000.1A, Management of Pregnant Servicewoman.
56. SECNAVINST 6300.4, Abortion Policy.
57. OPNAVINST 5370.2A, Fraternalization Policy.
58. SECNAVINST 5300.26C, Sexual Harassment Policy.
59. Quade, E.S., *Analysis for Public Decisions*, Prentice Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, copyright 1989.

60. Kantor, J., M. Ford, and M. Olmsted, *Navy-wide Personnel Survey (NPS) 1990-1996: Summary of Trends* Navy Personnel Research and Development Center, San Diego, 1997.
61. Dansby, Mickey R., and Dan Landis, *Intercultural Training in the United States Military*, Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute, Florida, 1995.

INITIAL DISTRIBUTION LIST

1. Defense Technical Information Center2
8725 John J. Kingman Road, Ste 0944
Ft. Belvoir, VA 22060-6218

2. Dudley Knox Library2
Naval Postgraduate School
411 Dyer Rd.
Monterey, CA 93943-5101

3. Turkish Navy Headquarters (Deniz Kuvvetleri Komutanligi)5
Personnel Department (Personel Baskanligi)
06100 Bakanliklar - ANKARA
TURKEY

4. Turkish Naval Academy 1
Deniz Hap Okulu Komutanligi
Tuzla - ISTANBUL
TURKEY

5. Turkish Embassy1
Naval Attache Office
3005 Massacushhet Avenue
Northwest Washington, DC 20008

6. Professor Alice Crawford Code SM/CR 1
Systems Management Department
Naval Postgraduate School
555 Dryer Road
Monterey, CA 93940

7. Professor Lee Edwards Code SM/ED1
Systems Management Department
Naval Postgraduate School
555 Dryer Road
Monterey, CA 93940

8. Lt. Yurdagul Colakoglu2
Yuzbasilar 7. Sokak Ufuk-B Apt.
Degirmendere - KOCAELI
TURKEY